The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 19, 1890.

The Week.

ALTHOUGH the Senate has passed the bill providing for the free and unlimited coinage of silver, the bill is very far from being a law, and the chances are decidedly against its becoming a law at this session of Congress. The House and the President are still to be reckoned with. The House may, by a close vote, ratify the Senate's action, but it is almost certain that the President will veto the bill. He will do this because the consequences to the public finances and to private business of a change in the standard of value are too serious to be incurred voluntarily. They must be fought off as long as possible by all who hold positions of responsibility. Grant that there are differences of opinion as to what the consequences will be, still everybody knows that there will be a change of some kind. Everybody knows, too, that the Administration will be held responsible politically for any damage that may be done.

The bill as passed by the Senate really goes much further than free coinage. Free coinage means that any holder of silver bullion may deposit it at the mint to be coined for his private account. The Government is under no obligations to pay immediately to the depositor of the bullion the number of dollars his deposit calls for, but usually does so because it has a surplus, and because the amounts deposited are usually no greater than it can turn into coin within a short time, thus reimbursing itself. This bill, in section 5, requires the Secretary of the Treasury to issue paper certificates at once for all the bullion deposited, and another section makes the paper certificates legal tender for both public and private debts. This is a truly bedlamite scheme. It proposes to lower the standard of value about 25 per cent. at one jump. A free-coinage bill pure and simple would change the standard of value none the less surely and none the less in ultimate extent, but the change would be gradual, because coinage takes time. The premium on gold would declare itself at once, but it would be small and would increase little by little. The experiment would thus be tentative, as it should always be in such grave cases. The people would have time and opportunity to inform themselves as to the ultimate effects of the measure without incurring any very serious disaster. Section 5 cuts away the scaffolding completely, and allows the whole fabric to fall at once the entire distance between silver and gold. It devises the greatest possible disaster in the least possible time. The Supreme Court unfortunately opened the door for this kind of disaster by its latest legal-tender decision. At all events, the Senate so understands it, although there may be some doubt whether the decision applies to Treasury certificates of deposit as well as to United States notes.

Senator Edmunds read a severe lecture to the fifteen Republican Senators who separated themselves from the majority of the party on this bill. The Senate bill was a caucus measure, although, of course, a caucus could not be considered technically binding in a case where the platform of the party was indecisive, if indeed it could be considered binding on any merely legislative measure. The significance of the break and of Mr. Edmunds's remarks upon it does not depend upon the action of the caucus, but upon the broad fact that a minority of Republican Senators separated themselves from the majority, and from the Administration, on a really vital measure, a measure known to be fraught with the gravest political consequences. The shattering effect of the vote upon the cohesive and effective strength of the Republican party will be very great, and probably irreparable during the present session of Congress. The Democrats, of course, go for anything that will divide or embarrass the Republicans. The Republicans did the same when they voted to reject all of Mr. Bayard's treaties, and refused to say how the treaties might be made acceptable to them.

The *Mexican Financier* of May 31 has a very lucid article on the silver question, taking for its text the bills in the American Congress providing for increased purchases of bullion. The question discussed by the *Financier* is whether such increased purchases will have the effect to advance the price of silver, and, if so, whether the advance is likely to be maintained. It thinks that some advance due to speculation is probable, but it gives good reasons for believing that it would not be permanent, since it would stimulate the production of silver, and bring into working a great many mines that have been abandoned in the past because they could not be profitably worked. The effect on silver mines would be the same as that produced on copper mines by the operations of the French syndicate. Every pennyworth of advance in the price would reopen some hole in the ground that had been abandoned because it would not return a new dollar for the old one spent in working it. The discovery of new mines would be correspondingly stimulated, and the result would be, as the *Financier* puts it, "a temporary rise in silver, followed in two or three years by a tremendous reaction, to the disturbance of all values."

The House has just passed another pension deficiency bill for the fiscal year now closing—this one being for the sum of $3,708,898, and in addition to a previous bill of the same sort requiring $21,613,009. The regular pension appropriation bill passed at this session covers $98,427,461, and the Dependent Pension Bill, which has already passed the House and will soon pass the Senate, calls for $35,000,000 at the lowest estimate of its friends—though it is much more likely to require double that sum. Accepting the lowest estimate, and adding a number of millions for the maintenance of the Pension Office, soldiers' homes, and other purposes connected with the pension system, Mr. Henderson of Iowa figures out a grand total of $167,824,735 already appropriated by the House on pension account since it met last December. But even this vast sum falls far short of the "*demands*" of the Grand Army Machine.

The only question as to any Republican measure proposed in the House of Representatives is, whether Speaker Reed wants it to pass. If he does, it will go through; if he does not, that is the end of it. The Speaker has made up his mind that there ought to be a Federal Election Law, and the party caucus on Thursday night practically agreed upon a measure which he will put through the lower branch of Congress in short order. Mr. Reed hopes to give the scheme sufficient impetus at his end of the Capitol to carry it through the branch which sits at the other end, and which thus far has not developed a parliamentary dictator.

The carpet-manufacturers, through Mr. Chas. F. Fairbanks, chairman of a committee appointed for the purpose, have addressed a brief statement to the Senate Finance Committee on the subject of the duties on carpet-wool in the McKinley bill. They point out some "fine work" in the wool schedule that had escaped the attention of the public, and was probably not known to a dozen members of the House when the bill was passed. One clause of the bill provided that wool that has been "sorted" shall pay double rates. Carpet-wools are generally sorted before shipment. If this practice continues in the foreign countries where they are grown, the duty on the lower grades, costing less than 13 cents per pound, will be 64 per cent. ad valorem, instead of 32 per cent., as the bill apparently makes them. By another intricate device the washing of wool is punishable by a fine of 18 per cent. If the wool is worth in the foreign market 13 cents or less per pound, it is taxed 32 per cent.; if over 13 cents, 50 per cent. But the mere washing of the inferior grade makes it worth over 13 cents, and thus throws it into the 50 per cent. schedule. The quality of the wool has not been changed, but the elimination of dirt and grease has raised its dutiable character from 32 per cent. to 50 per cent. The wool-growers are a cunning lot. It was supposed that when they consented to the 32 and 50 per cent. schedule, they had abandoned their extreme pretensions, but it appears now that

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they did so in appearance only. What they set out for was a duty sufficiently high to make the growing of carpet-wool in this country profitable—a perfectly Quixotic undertaking, as everybody, except Uncle Jerry Rusk and Statistician Dodge, knows.

The "original-package" question takes on a new phase with the discovery that Pittsburgh commission merchants are utilizing the recent decision of the Supreme Court to evade the Oleomargarine Law, by selling the stuff in the original packages in which it is imported from other States. Of course, the commission merchant is as perfectly protected in such traffic by the decision as is the liquor-dealer in selling his wares, and, equally of course, the bill recently passed by the Senate to meet the difficulty about liquor does not touch the matter of oleomargarine. It is safe to say that the Farmers' Alliances and other such organizations will be heard from without delay, and that they will insist upon the immediate passage of a law regarding oleomargarine.

It is hard work to keep up with the pace of the Farmers'-Alliance movement out West. A meeting of the branches of the organization in Cloud and Ottawa Counties, Kansas, was held recently, which adopted sundry resolutions incorporating their demands in the way of legislation, and followed them up with the following extraordinary declaration: "Resolved, That after the first day of December, 1890, we will pay no more taxes, coupon, interest, or mortgaged indebtedness, unless the Government aid us in procuring the money as above mentioned, or in any other manner equally favorable." Of course resolutions of this sort are often rushed through a convention without any proper appreciation of their meaning, but it is unfortunate that such deliverances should ever be made.

The Springfield *Republican* makes a very thorough exposure of the defence set up by some prominent Republican newspapers that, as Quay made good the amounts he took from the State Treasury, he did no wrong in taking them. That this doctrine should be put forward in sober earnest by the members of what was once a moral and religious party, must surely be set down as one of the astonishing occurrences of the past half century. Still another defence, nearly as extraordinary, has come from the same quarter—that Quay is not blameworthy in robbing the State of Pennsylvania because Calvin S. Brice owes the State of Ohio $200,000 in taxes. The Ohio courts have just destroyed this defence by deciding that Brice does not owe the State of Ohio any taxes. But think of the state of mind of the men who set it up—the mental and moral obtuseness it displays. Should we marvel over it when we remember that the President of the United States Senate, a United States Senator of eighteen years' standing, in the one hundred and fourteenth year of the American Republic, and in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and ninety, deliberately and thoughtfully promulgated the following code of morality as the proper one for the government of Americans in the transaction of their domestic government affairs?

"The purification of politics is an iridescent dream. Government is force. Politics is a battle for supremacy. Parties are the armies. The Decalogue and the Golden Rule have no place in a political campaign. The object is success. To defeat the antagonist and expel the party in power is the purpose. The Republicans and Democrats are as irreconcilably opposed to each other as were Grant and Lee in the Wilderness. They use ballots instead of guns, but the struggle is as unrelenting and desperate and the result sought for the same. In war it is lawful to deceive the adversary, to hire Hessians, to purchase mercenaries, to mutilate, to kill, to destroy. The commander who lost a battle through the activity of his moral nature would be the derision and jest of history. This modern cant about the corruption of politics is fatiguing in the extreme. It proceeds from the tea-custard and syllabub dilettanteism, the frivolous and desultory sentimentalism of epicenes."

The following is a specimen of the new morality which the Republican press is producing under the influence of the Quay and Wanamaker thefts. It comes from the Milwaukee *Evening Wisconsin*. The attempt, it says,

"to create sympathy for the English publishers of the Britannica, who have invested a million dollars in their work, is absurd. They are manufacturers of certain articles, and no one disputes that they are entitled to the proceeds of the sale of all those articles which they manufacture, but their claim to the proceeds, or any part of the proceeds, of similar articles manufactured by Mr. Wanamaker is, to say the least, very shadowy. The probability is that when the Messrs. Black, the publishers of the Britannica, went into the enterprise, they calculated all its chances, and that they have already made a profit out of it, and perhaps as much or more than they expected. At any rate, they made a purely commercial venture, and if they miscalculated their profits, that is their affair."

See how the editor works in here the dexterous falsehood that Wanamaker, in selling the Blacks' Encyclopædia, is selling something of his own "manufacture." See, also, how he gets in the Bedouin argument, that a man who ventures among thieves with his property has no right to complain if his anticipation that he may be robbed is fully realized. He knew the kind of place the Desert was, and if he did not like being robbed, why did he travel in it? Besides, why should a man who has made money by the sale of a portion of his property feel sore if somebody steals the rest? Other people want to make money out of it as well as he. Owners must not be hoggish with thieves.

The undisputed renomination for Governor of the incumbent, who is now serving his first term, leaves the platform as the only interesting feature of Thursday's Republican Convention in Maine. This platform is most significant for its omissions. One of them was the following resolution, which the Committee was asked to insert, but refused to do so:

"Resolved, That we favor the honest enforcement of the Civil-Service Laws."

Another proposed resolution, which the same committee refused to admit, reads as follows:

"Resolved, That we favor a sound currency, with gold and silver made equal."

But by far the most important omission of all was that of the following resolution, which was presented by the editor of the Portland *Advertiser*, a Republican newspaper, in behalf of the Young Men's Republican Club of his city:

"Resolved, That the purity of the ballot is the safeguard of the State and nation; to surround it with every possible protection is a part of good government, and to this end the Republicans of Maine endorse the secret system of voting with official ballots. It is no longer an experiment in American States, but an established success. It reduces the expense of elections to a minimum, and is the simplest and most effective preventive of bribery, intimidation, and other forms of corruption at the polls yet instituted."

The explanation of these omissions is the fact that the Convention was run by the Republican "boss," Postmaster "Joe" Manley of Augusta, and other Federal office-holders, who "have no use for" civil-service reform, sound currency, and, least of all, a secret-ballot law which would stop the present system of bulldozing and bribing men to vote the Republican ticket. A fine flavor of hypocrisy was lent the proceedings by an indefinite declaration in favor of "an elective system free from corruption and fraud," after the Committee had rejected by an overwhelming majority a plank in favor of a specific system; and by a further declaration in favor of "a free ballot and a fair count" in the South, after the Committee had refused to approve a system of proved efficiency for those purposes in Maine. What a hearty contempt for such performances would William Pitt Fessenden entertain if that vigorous-minded Maine Republican of the old school were still alive!

The Buffalo *Express* has begun to print biographies of officials of that city, a process which would probably do good in all the large cities, as there is nothing, except the penitentiary, which the class by which many American cities are ruled so much dreads as having their past lives explored for the information of the public. There are very few of them indeed who get into conspicuous offices by means which they would like to have described. The public, when one of them makes his way into a responsible municipal office, is apt to suppose, by a very natural association of ideas derived from the experience of private business, that he is a person who has had some sort of preparation for the duties of his place. It therefore listens with a certain respect to what in Tammany circles would be called his "guff" about the way in which cities should be governed, streets should be paved, or cleaned, or lighted, or policed; the fact being, in ninety-nine cases out of a hundred, that these are things on which he has never bestowed any attention whatever, and about which he is unfitted by his mental and moral condition to form any ideas worth expressing. The art of getting into office in large cities is the only one which he cultivates. About the art of administering cities he knows little more than any other ignorant and vicious man. There is, perhaps, no better way of bringing this important fact home to the voter than the publication of such particulars

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of their careers as can be got at. The whole story can hardly ever be told, because a large part of the lives of municipal politicians is what may be called subterranean, and is known only to their "pals" or "cronies," who will not "split" or "squeal" on them, except in case of a quarrel; and quarrels in their world are seldom serious.

The meeting which has been called at the Windsor Hotel on the evening of June 24, "to organize a citizens' movement for the purification of municipal politics by non-partisan nominations," is an encouraging sign. Bishop Potter, the Rev. Dr. Newton, Messrs. Seligman and Claflin, and their associate signers to the petition, set a good example to their fellow-citizens in thus coming to the front to give form and direction to respectable public sentiment in the city. We hope their example will be so inspiring that, when the meeting shall assemble, it will be found to be in the fullest sense representative of the intelligence and character of New York. We observe that already the partisans of both political parties look askance at the movement. Mr. Steinway, speaking in behalf of Tammany Hall, says citizens' movements of all kinds are unnecessary, since Mayor Grant's conduct of the Mayor's office has been so thoroughly commendable that he deserves a reëlection. Mr. Strong, speaking in behalf of the Republican organization, says that he is in favor of no movement which does not have in view the nomination of a "straight Republican ticket." Here we have the old familiar situation, the inevitable outcome of which would be the reelection of Mayor Grant or some other Tammany figurehead.

Between these two extremes the course of the citizens' movement must be directed. It should be borne in mind by its promoters that, this being a heavily Democratic city, with two Democratic voters for every Republican voter, the right of the majority to rule makes it imperative that a citizens' candidate who is to be elected should be a Democrat. He need not be, and ought not to be, a partisan Democrat, but, unless he is going to be run simply for form's sake, he must be a member of the Democratic party. To ask Democrats, in a city in which they number two-thirds of the voters, to elect as Mayor a Republican, is to ask them to confess that their own party has no man who is fit to fill the office. They never will consent to make that confession, and this fact must be admitted at the outset, and must be taken into account in selecting a citizens' candidate, or the movement will end in failure. The question is simply whether a Tammany man or an upright and able Democrat shall be elected. Mr. Steinway says that Mayor Grant is perfectly satisfactory to the Tammany Democrats, and he is undoubtedly right; but if the citizens' movement were to result in putting into the field a Democratic candidate of unimpeachable character, we venture to predict that Mayor Grant would not be renominated. On the other hand, if that movement were to result in the nomination of the most eminent and respectable Republican in the city, Mayor Grant's renomination would inevitably follow; and his reelection would follow also, whether there were a rival Democratic candidate in the field or not, simply because the Democrats, with their enormous majority, will not consent to be ruled by a Republican minority.

A modern legislator's portrait of himself has been drawn by State Senator Fassett of Massachusetts. He was charged with having offered to sell his own vote and the votes of several colleagues to a corporation, and appears to have cleared himself of the charge. But his own account of his conduct, as summarized by the Worcester *Spy*, shows this: "He was on such terms with the lobby that he ran at their summons by telephone to confer with the representative of an elevated-railroad scheme. He waited this great man's convenience in his office; received from him, apparently without surprise, though without approval, a suggestion that he should undertake to carry the measure by bribery, and afterwards wrote a friendly letter informing the man who had offered him this grievous insult that he had decided to support a rival enterprise, and therefore did not think it worth while to have another interview." The *Spy* is inclined to condemn this sort of thing, but it is hardly consistent for Republican organs which have nothing to say against a Quay to protest against a Fassett.

The English Ministry is in a condition of serious perplexity. The session is drawing near its close—there are only about two months of it left—and there are three measures of great importance to be passed—the Irish Land-Purchase Bill, the Welsh Tithes Bill, and the section of the Inland Revenue Bill which provides for an additional tax on beer and spirits to make a fund to enable County Councils to buy out liquor-dealers. To every one of these there is bitter opposition in the Liberal ranks, but it might be got over as regards the two first if it were not for the last, which divides even the Tories themselves, and rouses the moral and religious sentiment of the country as it has not been roused for many a day. Apparently all three cannot be passed in the teeth of the obstruction which is certain to be offered, and the question under discussion in the Tory ranks is which shall be abandoned. To abandon any of them is a confession of weakness which it is very dangerous to make so near a general election. To try to pass them all is to court defeat along the whole line. Lord Salisbury's proposal to revise the rules so as to enable one or more of them to be carried over to the next session as unfinished business, appears revolutionary. According to the immemorial usage of Parliament, a bill is killed by the close of the session. To sit on into the summer and fight, is to alienate all the sporting men—a powerful contingent in the Tory ranks—and incur increasing difficulty in maintaining majorities on minor divisions. To have an autumn session is probably even more distasteful to the same class. So the situation is one of extraordinary difficulty and peril, and may lead to a dissolution before the session closes.

The poison of the licensing bill lies in the fact that everybody believes it to be a Tory bid for the support of the liquor interest. Mr. Ritchie tried to tack on the principle of compensation for the publicans to his bill establishing the County Councils, in the teeth of a long line of judicial decisions that a license to sell liquor was not property, and, therefore, not a vested interest. He abandoned it before the storm of opposition it then excited. Its reproduction now by Mr. Goschen as a rider to the internal-revenue bill seems a revival of the old and much condemned project, with the same motive—that is, to win over the liquor-dealers for the general election—and increases the exasperation of the temperance people, and of tens of thousands of others who are not temperance people, but who are opposed to the conversion into property of the privilege of selling alcoholic drinks. Cardinal Manning has a strongly denunciatory article on the scheme in the last *Nineteenth Century*.

That Mr. Stanley has very nearly taken the Government of Great Britain out of the hands of Lord Salisbury, as regards the African question and the negotiations with Germany, seems to be the apprehension of the *Economist*, which makes an urgent appeal in behalf of diplomacy and against the town-meeting method of disposing of territories larger than the whole of Europe.

> "If the public," it says, "are to come crashing in prematurely with their general ignorance, and rough, broad views, and profound dislike of giving up anything, the diplomatists will cease to be free, and arrangement will speedily become impossible. . . . The public need not fear the possessions will not be large enough. The German Emperor will find before he has done that for a non-maritime Power colonies are costly possessions, while, as to ourselves, our only apprehension is, that we shall find ourselves with a sort of new world on our hands, demanding a new supply alike of energy and troops."

The statement of the *Economist* that the public need not fear that the possessions will not be large enough is eminently true, and ought to be the keynote of British policy. The danger is that the possessions will be too large for a country that is already charged with the task of governing a sixth part of the earth's surface. Mr. Stanley and Lord Salisbury are both right from their different standpoints. Englishmen discovered Central Africa. Under the rules which prevail, and always have prevailed, touching the possession of barbarous lands, England's right to the countries which Germany claims is as good as her right to the country of the Niger or the Shiré district. If the ideas which prevailed in the eighteenth century were still dominant in European councils, she would hold all these vast territories, or fight for them to the last extremity. Yet it may be money in her pocket to let Germany have what she wants in that quarter. She may be a stronger Power by not enlarging her responsibilities.

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THE PENSION SETTLEMENT.

THE two branches of Congress, after some weeks of dispute over their rival pension schemes, have at last come to an agreement. The compromise was ratified by the House on June 11, and there is no doubt of the Senate's concurrence. The original measure of the Senate was a Dependent Pension Bill of the same character as the one vetoed by President Cleveland three years ago; while the feature upon which the House long insisted was the introduction of the service-pension policy, by granting a pension of $8 a month to every soldier who is now sixty years old or hereafter reaches this age. The Senate was so determined in its hostility to this idea that it has forced the House to drop it, but in turn it has been obliged to make its own measure more sweeping than it was at first.

Like all important extensions of the pension system made during recent years, this bill is passed without any clear idea as to what will be its practical effect. The chief feature is that which provides that all soldiers who served as long as three months and were honorably discharged, "and who are now or who may hereafter be suffering from a mental or physical disability of a permanent character, not the result of their own vicious habits, which incapacitates them from the performance of manual labor in such a degree as to render them unable to earn a support," may receive a pension of from six to twelve dollars a month, "proportioned to their inability to earn a support." Another section provides that the widow of any soldier, whatever the cause of his death, who is "without other means of support than her daily labor," may receive a pension of eight dollars per month during her widowhood; and if there be any minor children, two dollars per month for each such child until it reaches the age of sixteen, or indefinitely if it be insane, idiotic, or otherwise permanently helpless. Another section renders it easier in future for dependent parents to secure pensions by providing that, when the fact of the soldier's death by reason of any cause which, under existing laws, would have entitled him to an invalid pension, and the fact that he left no widow or minor children, have been shown, it shall be necessary only to show that such parent or parents are without other present means of support than their own manual labor or the contributions of others not legally bound for their support.

Mr. Morrill, who presented the compromise in the House, estimated that it would increase the pension account by only $35,000,000 a year, but this is obviously an under-estimate, since it virtually adopts the figures upon which the Senate bill was based, whereas the compromise is much broader in its scope. The Senate bill allowed disabled soldiers to draw pensions only when they "are dependent upon their daily bread, or on the contributions of others not legally bound thereto, for their support." This clause was stricken out by the Conference Committee, so that it is necessary only to show that the old soldier is now "unable to earn a support by manual labor," and he may receive the pension, no matter if he has a competence. The practical result will be to encourage the old soldier to claim that he is not able to earn his living by the use of his hands, and that consequently he is entitled to a pension. Human nature being as weak as it is, we may expect to see a great rush for pensions under this provision from men whose neighbors never saw any reason to suppose that they needed any help in supporting themselves. The Senate Committee estimated that under their stricter rule fully 100,000 new pensioners would be added to the roll by this provision. Under the easier system which has been substituted, Mr. Morrill admits that probably 200,000 will come in, and Mr. Cannon estimated the addition as high as a quarter of a million. Reasoning from all the precedents in such matters, it will be very strange if the number does not soon approximate half a million. It is safe to say, too, that three-fourths, if not nine-tenths, of this vast army will be allowed the highest rate—$12 a month—which means nearly $15,000,000 a year for every hundred thousand names. Moreover, a great number of pensioners now drawing small sums—50,000, Mr. Cannon estimates—will have their allowances marked up to from $6 to $12 a month, and usually, of course, to the highest possible figure. It has been estimated that the widow clause of the bill will add 100,000 names at $8 a month, and a good many children will also come in, with a considerable number of dependent parents.

It is plain enough, therefore, that $35,000,000 a year will prove a ridiculously small estimate of the amount which will be called for by this bill. It is much more likely that the requirements will soon be double that sum. If no more than $50,000,000 a year should be called for, the pension appropriations would be swollen to the immense total of $150,000,000 a year. Vast as is the sum which Congress thus votes away, it falls far short of the "*demands*" of the Grand Army machine, and will serve only to strengthen its call for the breaking down of all restrictions and the granting of a pension to everybody who was ever in the army. The politicians who suppose that they have satisfied this machine will soon learn their mistake. It will grudgingly accept what they now grant, but it will only make it the basis for fresh "*demands*," enforced by fresh threats.

OUR "SWEATING SYSTEM."

THERE has been a great deal of talk in London during the past two years over what is called the "sweating system"—that is, the employment by small contractors of wretchedly paid labor of men, women, and children in the tailoring and other sewing trades, done in small rooms in tenement-houses, under revolting conditions as regards ventilation and cleanliness, and during hours which apparently have no limit but the physical endurance of the people employed. When the revelations of this misery first began to be made, it was supposed that it existed mainly among immigrants, principally Jews, from the Continent, and especially from Germany and Russia, and that something might be done to abate it by putting restrictions on immigration. Accordingly a committee of the House of Lords, containing several of the leading members of that body, was appointed to inquire into the matter. It sat for many months, and examined hundreds of witnesses, and has made an able report, but one which suggests no remedy. It can find no trace of anything new in the "sweating system," and indeed finds nothing which can be called a system, and has not discovered that the Jews suffer more from it than other races.

The source of the evil is a very old one. The public wants things cheap, and especially wants cheap clothing, and the very existence of each house engaged in the various branches of the clothing trade depends on its selling as cheaply as any other, and its success depends on its selling a little cheaper than some others. It consequently gets all its work done at as low rates as possible, or gives it out to small contractors, who sublet to poor wretches to whom some work at any pay is the only means of avoiding starvation or the workhouse. So they carry the materials with them to the dens in which they live in the back alleys, and toil fifteen or eighteen hours out of the twenty-four in a foul air, or in the midst of filth, for a bare subsistence, young and old, male and female. How is this to be prevented? Can the law step in and say to these unfortunates, "You shall not work at these rates of pay," or say to the employer, "You must pay higher wages"? One or other of these things apparently must be said, in order to work an effectual cure, and the Lords' Committee naturally shrink from saying either of them.

Miss Beatrice Potter, a lady well known in England for her labors among the poor, as well as for the power with which she treats social questions with her pen, has taken the matter up in the last *Nineteenth Century*, and her remedy is the extension to all premises in which any sort of manufacture is carried on of the provisions of the Factory Inspection Acts which are now in force in England. These acts, known as the Workshop and Factory Act of 1878, and the Public Health Act of 1875, cover by a system of inspection all textile factories and non-textile factories and workshops of certain specified trades, in which women, young persons, and children are employed. They regulate the hours of labor, the education of the children, the amount of space they occupy in the workshop, and the provisions made for sanitation and general cleanliness. The powers of the inspectors are very great. They can enter any factory or workshop covered by the acts at any hour of the day or night, and any breach of the regulations on the part of the employer is punishable summarily by a police magistrate by fine or imprisonment, or both. But the "sweaters," working in their little dens, escape them.

We have in this city, probably in all our large cities—but all evils of this kind are usually worse in New York than elsewhere—exactly the kind of abuse which the Eng-

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lish Factory Act was intended to correct—that is, a large class of women, young persons, and children, who are left at the mercy of employers intent on making their profits as large as possible, and using their own discretion in dealing with the health and comfort of a body of rather helpless labor. One field of this abuse, and only one, has been recently explored by a committee of ladies—the condition of the women and children employed in the large retail stores. A report on the subject was read at a meeting held under the direction of the Working Women's Society in Chickering Hall a month ago, which now lies before us in print, and deserves the serious attention of every intelligent man and woman in New York. Its statements ought to be officially examined by the Legislature, and dealt with next winter in a thorough manner. Over and above the particulars there set forth with regard to the sanitary conditions in which work is done in these establishments, the report further charges that the wages, always low, are reduced by fines, which go into the pockets of those who inflict them—a monstrous abuse; that the time allowed to children for their midday meal is inhumanly short; that the law which requires seats to be furnished to saleswomen is persistently ignored; and that their hours of labor depend wholly on the caprice or necessity of the employer.

It also says a good deal about the moral evils resulting in the case of women from the low wages paid them, but we do not see what the law can do to remedy this as long as ten women stand ready to fill every vacant place on any terms offered them. But the law can see that employers are made to respect the health and comfort of this helpless class of employees and provide for them decent and wholesome conditions of service. The beginning of summer is a bad moment to urge a reform on the attention of the more fortunate classes of the community; but we trust no one will go to the seaside or the mountains without remembering the helpless tens of thousands who are left to swelter in the city in these stores and workshops, for a precarious livelihood, without determining that something shall be done next winter to relieve our civilization of this disgrace.

THE SHORTENING OF THE UNIVERSITY COURSE.

The controversy over President Eliot's proposal to cut down the academic course at Harvard College has called forth only two objections of any weight. One is that it is a departure from the long-established custom of American colleges, and the other is that it diminishes by one-fourth the process of absorbing intellectual influence through which even those undergraduates who neglect their studies are said to pass.

As regards the first, it is to be said that the four years' term was fixed at a period when the entering age was very low. During two centuries of Harvard's existence it played the part of a high school as well as of a university. Boys entered it as young as twelve, and fourteen or fifteen was not an unfrequent age. As long as this state of things lasted, four years was not an unreasonably long period to spend in working for a degree. The college was giving the boy what the primary school ought to have given him in the way of instruction and moral discipline. He was not only taught Latin and Greek, but he was taught how to behave. He was sometimes even whipped when he went wrong. In fact, five years would not have been too long a term, for the boy who entered at fifteen or sixteen was hardly ready for a professional or business career any sooner, particularly in those days when youth was considered so much more of a disqualification than it is now.

There is nothing mystic in the term of four years any more than in the term of three or seven; nor is there anything in the nature of American boys which indicates clearly that four years is the length of time they should pass in getting a degree. A degree was originally intended, and is now intended, to show simply that a man had, in the opinion of a competent tribunal, attained a certain proficiency in certain branches of human knowledge. It shows also, but only incidentally, that he has passed a certain number of years in a seat of learning. Its value, however, lies in what it indicates as to the graduate's acquisitions at college, and not at all, or very slightly, in what it indicates as to his length of residence in college. The notion that a mere residence in a university has a separate value of its own, without regard to the way in which the undergraduate has passed the time, is of later date. It was very much the product of the gradual association of a degree with social position; that is, in process of time a degree increased in value by proving that a youth's parents could afford to keep him at a university for four years, and that he had during that period lived in what was considered good society.

Universities have never been rightly or truly regarded as mere examining boards. They have always, and very properly, sought to be an influence on the student's life as well as on his power of acquisition, and we trust will always remain so. That the change proposed by President Eliot would destroy or greatly weaken this influence would be a strong argument against it. Its opponents, however, assume that if the term be shortened one-fourth, the influence will be diminished in the same ratio, which is an extravagant if not absurd view. Nobody who has seen much of college life can have helped observing that the influence of the college atmosphere on the undergraduate declines as the expiration of his term approaches.

In the present Senior year there is no doubt that the shadow of active life falls on all the men to whom a college education is of most use. They have by that time got out of the college all that it can give them in the matter of influence on manners or ways of thinking about the problems of life. It is the work of the world and the ways of the world which now weigh heavily on their souls. The doings and sayings and ambitions of the classes below them begin to look a little childish. To pass this year in a professional school, or in preparation for business, would not injure, in any sense, ninety-nine graduates out of a hundred, and it may be maintained with safety that if the experience of American universities teaches anything with certainty, it is that if they are to keep their hold on the national imagination and respect, they must quicken the popular sense of their usefulness as a preparation for active life. It is the growing doubt of the masses on this point which has, as we all know, greatly diminished the proportion of college graduates to be found in political and professional life. Something needs to be done to revive the sense of the practical value of a university education, to which our chief colleges originally owed their existence, for neither Harvard nor Yale was established originally in the interest of general culture. They were both established to supply a godly and learned ministry. That this revival can be accomplished by a three years' course, without in any way changing the character of the instruction, there can be little doubt. It can be done by going back to the original collegiate idea, that the function of the university is above all things to teach youths who want to learn, and to give them their degree as soon as they have the knowledge required for a degree. The notion that able and diligent men should be kept in college after they are ready to graduate, in order that the lazy, or idle, or incompetent may have longer exposure to University "influence," is of comparatively recent growth, and has all the air of an abuse.

VASSAR COLLEGE.

It is a remarkable event in the long history of the widening of women's field of action when Vassar College celebrates its twenty-fifth anniversary. Twenty-five years ago it was honestly supposed, no doubt, by most people that the feminine cortex was of so soft and flabby a texture as to be quite incapable of following solid trains of thought; and that the few exceptions to this rule which had been noted were of an absolutely abnormal nature—as if a tree which was loaded with sickish-sweet mulberries should occasionally bear a fruit of a rich and pungent flavor.

Matthew Vassar was a man wiser than his generation. Following the suggestion of his niece, Lydia Booth, the principal of a Poughkeepsie school—a woman whose name should always be mentioned when Matthew Vassar is praised—he devoted his wealth, with which he had intended to found a hospital, to the great experiment of offering to women a college education. Undeterred by the fear of spoiling the work which the Lord had done, and convinced that women had not got brains made of a totally different stuff from those of men, he determined to let them try if the rank and file were not capable of gaining nourishment from a stronger diet than that which the boarding-school is wont to offer. In his first communication to the Board of Trustees of Vassar College he made use of these memorable words: "It occurred to

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me that woman, having received from her creator the same intellectual gifts as man, has the same right as man to intellectual culture and development."

The bold experiment of Matthew Vassar proved successful from the very beginning. In May, 1870, in a long article—the result of a careful study of the College—the *Nation* said:

"The answering, translating, and demonstrating which we witnessed were done in a style which we have never seen surpassed by young men of the same standing; and in the treatment of some subjects, in readiness, and clean-cutness, and dexterity of expression, the superiority to young men was perceptible. Moreover, we thought we saw evidence of women's superior conscientiousness in the absence of all attempts to fumble with questions or to take random shots at them, when an avowal of complete ignorance was clearly the only way of meeting them. . . . We believe we never before met so many really simple, unconscious, unaffected young ladies as we saw there. They had acquired what we may be forgiven for calling the sober masculine air of people who have business to do and are quite equal to it, and are too much occupied with it to have time or attention for anything else. . . . There was nothing to make one fear that any of the graces of life were going to suffer from the experiment; there were plenty of signs that it was likely to give homes what they have perhaps wanted most of all—the dignity of strength—the repose that comes of knowing exactly where one stands and what one can achieve."

The two days which Vassar College has just given to celebrating her twenty-five years of existence were days which were well calculated to stir deep feelings in the minds of those in attendance. The presentation of the gymnasium, just erected by the alumnæ at a cost of $26,000, to the Board of Trustees, the warm response of the gentle and venerable President of that Board, Dr. Lathrop, the reminiscences of college life by half-a-dozen graduates of different periods, the touching historical address, describing the early struggles of the Founder and the inception of the College, by Benson J. Lossing, the oration of Mr. Curtis, and the after-dinner speeches by alumnæ and by the representatives of other colleges—all were full of significance. Mr. Curtis's speech, delivered in a large tent erected on the grounds, was one of those efforts of the orator by which his hearers are swayed hither and thither—moved now to laughter and now to tears—filled now with indignation at the meannesses from which women have suffered in the past, and now roused to enthusiasm at the picture of the possibilities which open before them in the future. The high-water mark of the address was reached in the glowing sketch which the speaker drew of Margaret Fuller:

"A scholar, a critic, a thinker, a teacher, a queen of conversation, above all, a person of delicate insight and sympathy, the wisest of friends, of the utmost feminine refinement of feeling, and of dauntless spiritual courage—such is the woman, I doubt not, whom Matthew Vassar vaguely foresaw when his generous heart inspired him to his noble task; such is the woman that, as a lofty ideal, presides over the studious hours and quiet meditations of these halls."

Not only in Mr. Curtis's speech, but in all the others as well, mixed with thankfulness for present gain, there was sounded the constant note of eagerness for one concession still to be won. The education of the college is a conquered standpoint; what remains is to make the post-collegiate education equally easy of access to women. To duplicate the great laboratories and the great professorships of the two or three colleges which give adequate post-graduate instruction would be foolish in the extreme. It is little less than silly to suppose that men and women who are so seriously minded as to give three years to study after completing the college course could not brave the association of the lecture-room without danger of impropriety. What possible reason can Columbia College, or Clark University, or the Johns Hopkins urge for not throwing open their post-graduate courses to women? What more graceful act could be imagined with which to mark this memorable year, when Vassar College celebrates her first quarter of a century, and when Philippa Fawcett is 300 marks ahead of the senior wrangler, than for those universities, without further wheedling or coaxing or bribing, to open to women the opportunities for hard work which women covet, and which the sense of justice of men, tardy though it be, will not permit them much longer to refuse?

THE CENTENNIAL OF MONTPELLIER.

MONTPELLIER, May, 1890.

THE University of Montpellier has just celebrated with great spirit the completion of its sixth century. The President of the Republic, the Minister of Public Instruction, M. Bourgeois, the vice-rector of the University of France, M. Gréard, members of the Institute of France, including MM. Gaston Boissier and Bréal, delegates from the chief seats of French learning, and the representatives of foreign universities, at the head of whom was the illustrious Helmholtz of Berlin, took part in the ceremonies. The weather was superb, the arrangements admirable, the success complete. The occasion was a worthy sequence to the academic festivities which have been observed at Bologna, Heidelberg, Edinburgh, and Harvard, and a good example for Dublin, which is expected to celebrate its 400th anniversary next year.

Four days were devoted to the fêtes, which began with religious services in the Cathedral on Thursday, May 22, and ended with a ball at the house of the rector of the University upon the following Sunday. The chief attractions were those of Friday, when M. Carnot was received by the assembled throngs, and when the principal addresses were made at the Convocation. There were, besides, processions, fire-works, illuminations, and a great banquet. The entire city seemed to participate in the jubilee, and extra trains brought innumerable crowds from the neighboring towns. I was told that the ordinary population of the city, say 50,000 persons, was doubled on this festive Friday, and it was easy to believe that this was so. The streets were certainly thronged.

I will not endeavor to describe all the varied entertainments which were provided for visitors during the fête. There was a light and joyous tone to the celebration which contrasted very strongly with the seriousness, not to say the solemnities, of our college commencements. There were few speeches, many pageants. It was a holiday time, not a period for obituaries, nor learned discourses, nor appeals for money, nor for the bestowal of honorary degrees. The addresses that were made were brief, well written, and read word for word by the speakers. Two of the principal addresses were distributed through the audience, in type, just before the speakers came forward. This was fatal to spontaneity, but it was favorable to clearness and finish of style. What was lost as "eloquence" was gained as literature; what was lost in adaptation to the moment was gained in permanent excellence.

Among the incidents of the celebration it was pleasant to observe the zest with which the students entered into all the festivities. Their courtesy and good order were as remarkable as their enthusiasm. They wore caps of varied colors, badges, and sashes, but generally not gowns, and they carried banners to indicate the colleges and universities from which they came. As the processions were formed on an alphabetical and international basis, the Americans headed the column, and half-a-dozen of our young countrymen who are studying in Montpellier bore the national flag in advance of all other banners, and everybody seemed pleased by this unexpected leadership. It was the more noteworthy as the American colleges sent but two delegates; Baltimore and Ithaca being the only places represented.

Montpellier deserves to be better known than it is to the Americans. It is not upon the beaten track of travel, and tourists who include Avignon, Nismes, and Arles on their route to Marseilles or the Riviera are likely to pass by the seat of this ancient University. In years gone by, it was a sanitary resort much frequented by the English, but an unfavorable sentence in a well-known guide-book exerted a damaging influence upon the town which was not justified by the facts, and from which it has not recovered. Students who desire to avoid the distractions of Paris, and yet wish to follow the guidance of French professors and to be surrounded by French influences, may well resort to Montpellier. One of the most distinguished savants of the Sorbonne called my attention particularly to the attractions which are offered to foreigners in this southern seat of learning. Here are schools of letters, science, law, medicine, and pharmacy, with laboratories, libraries, museums, and a botanical garden. There are exceptional advantages for the study of viticulture, which one young man from the University of California is now enjoying. This part of France has suffered extremely during the last few years from the phylloxera, and the intelligent and persistent efforts which the scientific and practical men have made to restore the vineyards to their former productiveness have been so successful as to call forth from M. Carnot words of strong commendation. The practical men and the scientific men of the region are, of course, thoroughly well acquainted with all that pertains to the culture of the grape.

Let me now recur to the celebration, of which, as I have said, the principal day was Friday. About two o'clock in the afternoon, all the delegates from a distance were received by the resident faculties in the buildings recently appropriated to the University, and were presently escorted to the Prefecture, where M. Carnot was expected. As the procession moved slowly through a narrow street, up a gentle acclivity, the faculties escorted by the students, the houses decorated with flags, and the streets hung with lanterns, it was easy to imagine that we were looking at a scene of the middle ages. Almost every one in the cortège wore an academic cap and gown, and the colors were as various as those of a flower garden. The scene was even more brilliant, two hours later, when the company were seated under a red and white marquee, in the midst of the beautiful city garden which bears the name of Peyron. The President of the Republic, surrounded by the official representatives of public instruction in

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France, sat in chairs arranged upon one side of a hollow square. On the right were the French professors and on the left the foreign guests. In front were ladies and students. After an introductory address by the Rector, came the historical discourse by Prof. Croiset of Montpellier, which was well written and well read, and which had the additional merit of brevity, as it occupied but half an hour. He dwelt upon the fact that the University is much older than 600 years. The date selected for commemoration is that of the bull of Nicolas IV. (October 26, 1289), when the faculties already in existence were united by Papal authority as one corporation. Perhaps the schools existed as early as the eighth century. Certainly in the twelfth century Montpellier was renowned for its instruction in medicine, and this credit was chiefly due to Jewish physicians, followers of Avicenna and Averroës, who brought with them Arabic learning imbued with Greek tradition. About the same period the study of jurisprudence was promoted by Placentinus, who came from Bologna. Petrarch is doubtless the most renowned of all who have been enrolled as students in Montpellier, and the words in which he refers to his four years' course of studies in law were quoted by Prof. Croiset with excellent effect. Rabelais is the name of another illustrious writer who owes his education to this *studium generale*. The discourse did not refer merely to the names of distinguished scholars. It exhibited the growth of the university in different epochs, and afforded a good illustration of the doctrine which was expressed near the end of the oration: "Pour qu'une université soit autre chose qu'un groupement artificiel, *il faut qu'elle ait une âme*."

Among the addresses which followed M. Croiset's was that of the Minister of Public Instruction, which was regarded as very significant, because in it he committed himself and the Government to a new policy in university administration. He promised to favor the restoration of the local universities, which have been obscured during most of the present century, or rather have been absorbed in the one organization, the University of France.

M. Carnot was not called out at this ceremony, but each of the deputations from abroad saluted him as well as the Rector of the University as they presented their ceremonious addresses. The President made his speech at the banquet which was given in the evening.

It is worth while to add, for the information of American institutions which may be invited to other fêtes like that of Montpellier, that the Continental universities are careful on these occasions to send their written salutations, usually engrossed on parchment, which is either handsomely bound or encased in a beautiful roll. D. C. G.

A NOBLEMAN OF THE OLD RÉGIME.

PARIS, May 10, 1890.

THE memoirs of the Duc des Cars, just published by his nephew, the present Duke, were not written for publication. They give, in all sincerity, the impressions of a man who was born and lived in a society which was very different from ours, and this perfect sincerity is one of their charms. Jean François, son of the Comte des Cars and of Emily Fitz-James, daughter of Marshal Berwick, was first known under the name of the Chevalier des Cars, for he had been admitted a Knight of Malta. He was born at the Château des Cars, in Limousin. He was first destined for the Church, but he felt no vocation. His mother, who saw no alternative for a younger son but the Church or the navy, got him appointed *garde de la marine*, and at the same time he was admitted Knight of Malta. He was sent to Brest, and embarked on a ship which was sent to the coast of Morocco. The squadron sent to Morocco was composed of the *Union*, the *Sincère*, the *Lunette*. The *Union* had on board an Ambassador Extraordinary. The incidents of the mission to Morocco are amusingly told. Des Cars met among the Moors a peasant of Limousin, whom he had known as a child, and who had been a soldier in Portugal and in Spain; also, an ex-Jesuit of Portugal, who had been expelled from Lisbon at the time of a plot against the life of the King (in 1759), had afterwards been a privateer, and had been appointed Grand-Admiral by the Emperor of Morocco. The Portuguese Jesuit wore the turban and looked very magnificent on his horse. Des Cars was presented to the Emperor in these terms: "The lad is one of the Knights of Malta—devils in war, good fellows in peace." The Ambassador also presented M. de Suffren (who afterwards became famous in India, and *bailli* in the order of Malta), and La Bourdonnaye. The Emperor was fond of astronomy, and had a reputation for great mildness in comparison with his father, Ishmael. One day, however, the paternal instincts were too strong, and Mohammed himself transfixed, one after the other, sixty Berber prisoners with a lance, taking care to change the lance each time.

Des Cars, on his return to Brest, fell in with La Peyrouse (the famous navigator who died in a journey round the world), who offered to take him with him on the *Adour*. He went with him to Bayonne. He afterwards journeyed to Cadiz and Marseilles; he returned from the last place to the Château des Cars, where he found his uncle and spent pleasantly five months. "During these five months I often wrote to my mother, who never answered me." His mother was dangerously ill in Paris; he went there to see her, but she was very angry with him for coming to Paris, and sent him back to Brest. Soon afterwards, she sent for him, however, feeling that she was going to die; he arrived too late. "I had wept much," he says, "over my father, whom I adored, and who had always shown me the greatest tenderness; I wept equally for my mother when I knew that she had shown a desire to see me again."

Des Cars was now free to choose his own career, and though he was prepared for his nomination as *enseigne*, he left the navy and entered the army. He had an income of about 8,000 livres; he could live at his sister's house in Paris and at his brother's house in Versailles. The King, as soon as he was presented, admitted him to all his suppers on the hunting days and to all the little journeys to Choisy, to Marly, to Bellevue. His brother was first maître d'hôtel to the King and lived at the castle. His military service in a regiment of carbineers took up only four months in the year.

When the household of the Comte d'Artois was formed, Des Cars was made one of his gentlemen in waiting, and on the same day Colonel. This last appointment gave him more pleasure than the first. "The Court was, for me, as for the greater part of the French nobility, less an end than the means of obtaining promotion in the military career." This happy day was to close with another royal favor. On retiring, the King, for a certain familiar purpose, called Des Cars out of the throng of marshals of France and other dignitaries. "I thought I was not seen. I heard my name, and the first valet had some difficulty in finding me." Such incidents show better than anything the state of the French Court before the Revolution: a word of the King, a menial service rendered in his presence, seemed matters of supreme importance. Only the men of *quality*, those who were *born*, to use their own language, were admitted to the curious Olympus where Jupiter did not even try for a moment to conceal from Juno his infidelities.

The Comte d'Artois lived entirely with the Prince d'Hennin (Charles d'Alsace de Chimay d'Hennin, Prince of the Roman Empire, who died on the guillotine in 1794), the Chevalier de Crussol, captain of his guards, the Marquis de Polignac, and Des Cars, who became one of his favorites. He accompanied the Comte d'Artois on his journeys. The account of a visit made to the Marquis Voyer d'Argenson is curious. D'Argenson was a free-thinker, and was very *English* in his political views. "One day we had gone to Maisons to see some stables of the Comte d'Artois. His agent, Sainte-Foix, kept us to dinner. During the repast we talked on the subject of the French finances. Voyer gave all his views, but said that our Ministers were too stupid to adopt them. 'I see,' said he, 'that there is but one way left; it is to *debourbonize* France.' . . . No man ever was as dangerous as M. de Voyer. He had had the care of the education of the Ducs de Chartres, the Conflans, the Lauzuns, and their imitators; he had undertaken to destroy all religious principle in the heart of the Comte d'Artois." Des Cars also joined the Comte d'Artois in visits to Marshal d'Harcourt at Harcourt and to the Choiseuls at Chanteloup.

Des Cars was in luck: one fine day, in 1780, he had the good fortune to be advised the first of the existence of an abbey the revenues of which were in the gift of the French Crown; he claimed them as Knight of Malta, though he was now a colonel of dragoons, and he obtained thus a great accession of revenue. "I became really rich," he says. "I had more than 48,000 livres of rente; I was lodged, fed, warmed, lighted at my sister's in Paris, at my brother's in Versailles; all my horses were kept in Paris by the Comte d'Artois" (there is still in Paris a street called Rue des Écuries d'Artois). Des Cars is very ingenuous in the expression of his pleasure in receiving all these good things; he evidently felt that they were his due, and that humanity was divided into two parts, those who are born to enjoy and those who are born to endure life. The King was the fountain of all favors, and the fountain was to be carefully guarded against all intruders. He could have said with the Prince de Ligne: "Why do people declaim against abuses? I have personified them all, and I always felt the better for it"; only what the Prince de Ligne said half ironically Des Cars would have said with the simplicity and the conviction of a child. This belief in the divine right of a privileged class was the great cause of the French Revolution—much more than the belief in the divine right of kings. To do justice to Des Cars, he was a good soldier, he kept his regiment in an admirable state, he preferred his military service to everything. He had in him the old feudal spirit; he knew that he owed to his lord the "servitium militare." He offered to go to America with Rochambeau; he was always ready to join an expedition. His brother, who was a sailor, had acquired much reputation, and fell gloriously in a naval battle fought against the English.

Soon afterwards, Des Cars offered to fight as a volunteer at the siege of Gibraltar, with the Comte d'Artois. The Prince left France with

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him, D'Hennin, Crussol, and the Comte de Vaudreuil. The journey through Spain was rapid. The Comte d'Artois was well received by King Charles III., his great-uncle. The King always dined alone, and consequently did not ask the Count to his table; but he desired that he should receive all the honors of an Infanta. The incidents of the siege of Gibraltar are well known. The Comte d'Artois was there merely as a volunteer; the French troops were under the command of the Duc de Crillon, known for his eccentricities and his debts, who had been made Duke of Mahon after he had taken that place. Crillon, after vain attempts, was obliged to raise the siege. Such was the end of an enterprise which had been prepared by Spain and France for a whole year and announced with emphasis to the world. The English remained as firm on their rock as in 1763, when a treaty of peace gave them possession of it.

On his return to Paris, Des Cars married one of the great heiresses of France, Mlle. Pauline de la Borde, the daughter of the financier (well known to all bibliophiles by the 'Chansons de la Borde,' so admirably illustrated by Moreau le Jeune and others). Mlle. de la Borde belonged to the world of finance, of the rich *fermiers-généraux* who had become so important at the end of the eighteenth century. Des Cars did not know her, and the marriage was arranged by his sister with a rapidity which seems extraordinary even for that time. The Queen knew La Borde and took an interest in his daughter.

"A moment after, the Queen came in, with a billiard cue in her hand. I thought I saw Diana with an arrow; she had her majestic and light step:

'Vera incessu patuit Dea.'

'The Comte d'Artois,' said she, 'has charmed me, Chevalier. I shall be delighted if La Borde gives you his daughter. I will charge the Abbé de Vermond to tell La Borde to-morrow morning that I approve this marriage, that he cannot do any better, and that the King will be as much pleased as I am myself.' . . . Thus it was that, between the 27th of March, at six o'clock at night, and the 29th, at the same hour, my marriage was proposed and concluded—a marriage which many rich and even titled people would have desired."

On the occasion of his marriage, he was appointed first maître d'hôtel to the King *en survivance*—that is to say, he obtained the promise of this place if he survived his brother, who had it, and obtained at once all the privileges attached to it, such as entrance into the King's cabinet. This charge was very valuable: the brother of Des Cars had paid 1,500,000 livres for it. The first maître d'hôtel lived with the King, and received every day at dinner all the great officers of the King and his guests, as the King always dined alone with his family, except on certain solemn occasions.

The day before his marriage, Des Cars abandoned the cross of Malta and received the cross of St. Louis. The society of M. de la Borde, his father-in-law, was very literary. He lived much at the castle of La Ferté-Vidame, near Dreux; there Des Cars made the acquaintance of the Philosophical Society and of the society of the *fermiers-généraux*. La Borde afterwards sold La Ferté to the Duc de Penthièvre, and bought a place near Étampes, called Mérinville, which he embellished; he was arrested there in 1793, and taken before the Revolutionary tribunal. Des Cars asked permission, soon after his marriage, to go to Germany, in order to study the battle-fields of the Seven Years War and the organization of the Prussian Army. He saw Crefeld, Clostercamp, Wesel, Willingshausen, Wilhelmsthal, etc. He had a great passion for military matters. At Berlin, he could admire the work of Frederick II.; he saw Frederick himself, and witnessed some reviews and manœuvres. His observations on the subject of the Prussian regiments and Frederick's lieutenants have an historical interest.

HAWTHORNE'S VILLA AT FLORENCE.

FLORENCE, 1890.

IN some letter-books of Hiram Powers, shown me by his son Nicholas Longworth Powers, I have found interesting traces of the Hawthornes in Florence, as well as in the recollections of the widow Powers, and others. On May 16, 1858, Hawthorne wrote to Powers, on an introduction of Mr. Akers, asking his help in obtaining a residence there, for a few months, and adding, "I cannot conclude this note without thanking you for the kindness which allows me to put you to this trouble, nor without expressing the pleasure I anticipate in meeting personally one whose works have given me so much delight." Powers's studio was then in the Via dei Seragli, and he found rooms for the Hawthornes in a house nearly opposite (No. 124), called the Casa del Bello—so called, says tradition, because of the good looks of its first owner. The first and most expensive floor (it was $50 per month) was selected because of a vine-covered veranda on one side of the court, passing from Hawthorne's study to a charming arbor, from which steps descend into the courtyard, with its flowers, and one or two orange trees. Florence was too fascinating, however, to allow Hawthorne to dream away his hours in this summer-house. He had not yet a romance in hand, and entered keenly into the life of the place. He enjoyed the society of the Brownings, the Trollopes, and the pleasant Florentines who attended the *salon* of Miss Blagden; that is, at such times as he was not overpowered by his shy mood. Dr. T. Villari remembers an evening at Miss Blagden's when Hawthorne took refuge in a corner, devoting himself to photographs.

The great charm for Hawthorne was the studio of Powers; there he was surrounded by admirable busts and statues of nearly all eminent Americans, and he was in contact with a thinker as well as an artist—a man, too, of wide and wonderful experiences. Hiram Powers now trained him in the principles of sculpture, now delighted him with anecdotes of early Cincinnatians—of Longworth, Peyton Semmes, Corwin, and the rest—of the waxwork "Inferno" he constructed in Cincinnati; and was equally capable of enchaining his attention with strange supernatural stories in which he (Powers) devoutly believed. The two used to sit, in the June nights, on the roof of Powers's house, catching snatches of song or declamation from the Goldoni Theatre near by, and imagining that the air might be peopled with beings too aerial for human senses to perceive. It is amusing, by the way, to find Hawthorne, on his return from the Sunday horse-races, manifesting distress at the Sunday theatres. On June 18, 1858, Powers wrote to his friend W. N. Kinney:

"Mr. Hawthorne is a very mild and quiet man, seems diffident, and changes color while speaking. It seems impossible that he should endorse Gen. Pierce, but perhaps he did this before the latter had manifested his *splendid* policy. I shall have a talk with him about Kanzas, to hear what he will say. Segato took his secret of petrifying dead bodies to purgatory (he died a Catholic, I suppose), and I trust that old [illegible] has carried his golden secret to heaven direct."

In 1836, when Hawthorne was editing the Bewick Company's magazine, he wrote therein a characteristic article on Segato's discovery, imagining Webster and other statesmen turned, after death, into statues, or pillars of state in the Senate.

In his journal, under date of June 4, 1858, Hawthorne speaks of sitting in his summer-house and dreaming of a story. The dreams were of 'The Marble Faun,' and they were put on paper in Montauto villa, to which the family removed at the end of July. After this Florence, though only a mile distant, saw little of him.

"'The House of the Seven Gables,'" writes Powers to a friend (July 18), "is very domestic, does not seem inclined to visit his neighbors much, and, when he does, his stay is short. He seems a cautious, prudent man. My last talk with him was about Mr. Van Buren and Gen. Jackson, and I said what I thought of them. He expressed no opinion, but asked if I did not think Gen. Jackson honest. I told him that I had no doubt that Gen. Jackson thought himself so, and I had known worse men than he who never appeared to suspect their own integrity. For men can persuade themselves of almost anything. The young governess [Miss Ada Shepherd], who understands Latin and Greek, and seems a very modest and well-disposed girl, spoke out pretty decidedly against the political career of Gen. Pierce, at my studio, and in the presence of the eldest daughter of the Seven Gables. Perhaps the padlock of gratitude holds the door of that house fast shut. Some locks are easy to pick, but I rather think this would prove one of Hobbs's. The mistress of the House of Seven Gables has no visible padlock—her tongue is free enough, but not for any evil."

A Florentine gentleman told me a strange episode in the history of Casa del Bello. Thomas Buchanan Read resided there for a time, before Hawthorne, and his wife was the first victim of the cholera, which in that year became epidemic. The poor lady was confined also, the child being born dead. My Florentine friend had known Read, and had run about to find physicians and bring medicines for the lady. After her death he went there towards midnight. The two dead bodies were in the house (the child sealed in a leaden tube), and Read was relieving his distraction by reading his own poems to Powers. The Italian also listened, and remembers—for it was Carnival night—the maskers' revels and their lights flaring under the windows of the room where this weird scene was taking place. After midnight the bodies were buried in that same garden of flowers on which Hawthorne looked while he dreamed of his 'Marble Faun.' Some years later Read came to Florence with his second wife and removed the body of the first to America. Here was a romance haunting his garden of which Hawthorne does not appear to have heard. Indeed, he does not appear to have been much interested in the actual or historic associations of the neighborhood. He visited old Mr. Seymour Kirkup, who, with his little Imogen, appears in 'The Dolliver Romance,' but does not seem to know that the house was once the palace of the Vespucci family, a member of which gave America his name. With all his sentiment about Boccaccio, he does not visit the villa where the ladies and gentlemen listened to his tales. Of his larger villa, Montauto, he wrote to James T. Fields: "At one end of the house there is a moss-grown tower, haunted by owls, and by the ghost of a monk who was confined there in the thirteenth century, previous to being burned at the stake in the principal square of Florence." It is droll that he doesn't mention that this monk was Savonarola!

'The Marble Faun' is first mentioned in his journal as having been begun July 27, a day or two before leaving Casa del Bello; it was, therefore, begun in that summer-house, but it was developed and sketched out at Montauto

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villa between the 29th of July and the 29th of September. By the kindness of Lady Hobart, I was enabled to go over the villa, and found it very interesting to do this with Hawthorne's journal of his residence there, and his 'Romance of Monte Beni' (his name for the castle) in my hand. Una's picturesque room in the lower part of the tower, so carefully described in Hawthorne's journal, is now a dining-room; and the oratory adjoining it has become a place for dumb-waiters. But I recognized in the vestry and chapel nearly all the pictures and consecrated objects mentioned by Hawthorne, among them the "undraped little boy in wax" which he came near mistaking for Cupid. That his notions of sacred and pagan things were sometimes a little confused is proved by his description of the ceiling of his own study as "ornamented with angels and cherubs," these frescoes being nymphs and Cupids much more liberal with their charms than angels. In this luxurious room 'The Marble Faun' was written, amid golden damask and mural decorations. The windows are also doors, and open on an ornamental garden with paths embowered with box so high that one can hardly be seen while walking up and down them. On one side of the garden is a stone wall on which one may lean and overlook the Umbrian valley. This garden was no doubt the real "study" of Hawthorne. Here he might summon from neighboring villas, commanded by this height, such fountains or statues as his romance required. And the descriptions of the terraces, the nook where Donatello summoned the wild creatures, the marble nymph and fountain, given in the romance, do not correspond with the realities of Montauto. Nor is there, within, the legendary fresco so realistically described.

On the other hand, the house is described with strictness as to detail (chap. xxiv). The well in a recess in the side of the house was shown me when I asked for it, and other peculiar things. The tower is described with literal fidelity. Missing the shrub which Kenyon remarked on the top, I asked the old gardener if anything grew there. He said that an old myrtle had long been there, but had died the year before and was cleared away. This gardener had been a lad on the estate when Hawthorne dwelt there. He could barely remember the family, he said, for he had nothing to do at the villa, but only on the farm. He remembered more particularly a boy named Christopher, whom they brought out there with them. There is a tradition that when Hawthorne climbed to the top of the tower for meditation—which he often did—he was accustomed to pull the last ladder up after him.

The northward view is superb. In the great valley are bright villas, silvery streams, and innumerable groves of cypress, olive, and orange; there are the domes and towers of Florence—Galileo's Tower, Giotto's Campanile; beyond all, the delectable hills rising to majestic summits—Pama della Croce (6,100 feet), Tre Potense (6,300), La Nuda (5,930), Coma al Scale (6,400), Mt. Cimone (7,000). Their graceful, snowy tops seem to look graciously, like winged guardians, on the villages that nestle on all the more accessible summits, each with its old church or convent. I could see below Fiesole the trees about Palmieri (Boccaccio's romantic villa), and the Valley of the Ladies stretching near Landor's villa. Had not Landor been a dying man when Hawthorne was near, he might have left us an "imaginary conversation" between the two sweetest story-tellers, surpassing all the rest; or he might even have imagined a communion across the centuries between Savonarola, whose sad eyes looked on this grand scene where his ashes were strewn, and the New England romancer who made his ghost into a bit of pigment for this tower.

In 'The Marble Faun,' Hawthorne has transferred the lowest room of the tower, with its oratory and pictures, to the top. "This is my own abode," said Donatello, "my owl's nest." The tower corresponds in his imagination with that of the Via Portoghese, in Rome, where he pictures Hilda with her white doves. His love of these solitary heights has a significance for those who recognize that Hawthorne was almost as much a prisoner of his individuality as Savonarola in his tower. He was unable to share the spirit and aim of his own country, of England, or of Italy. He was one of the loneliest men that ever lived. When from the Old World he returned to Concord, his first task was to add a tower to his house, "Wayside." There he sat above the tumult of civil war, writing of the old Revolution; and there, while telling a tale of the elixir of life, the cup of death was pressed to his lips.

Correspondence.

THE BULLEN FUND.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Will you kindly grant me space for the following statement?

It is proposed that a testimonial of esteem and respect should be presented to Dr. George Bullen on his retirement from the office of Keeper of Printed Books in the British Museum for so many years excellently administered by him. To this end a Committee has been formed of which Earl Spencer is Chairman.

The British Museum is opened as liberally to Americans as to Englishmen, and I happen to know that many of our countrymen, while enjoying this privilege, have been indebted to Dr. Bullen for numerous acts of kindness and courtesy beyond the limits of his official duties.

I feel sure that these and perhaps others on this side of the water would gladly join in this tribute to acknowledged merit. To the illuminated memorial on parchment to be presented to Dr. Bullen the names of all contributors will be appended, but without specification of the sums individually subscribed.

I have consented to receive and transmit subscriptions, but the better way would be to remit these directly to Mr. B. F. Stevens, U. S. Despatch-Agent, the honorary treasurer, No 4 Trafalgar Square, London.—I remain, sir, your obedient servant,

J. R. Lowell.

Elmwood, Cambridge, Mass., June 9, 1890.

THE VENAL PRESS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The Nebraskan sensation is, after all, but a repetition of what the *Voice* showed was the condition of things in Pennsylvania last year when the constitutional amendment was submitted in that State. From the character of the sell-out at that time among journals of recognized standing in Philadelphia and elsewhere, the fact was forced to the front that Brother Carson of Gibbon, Neb., is not the only editor who "is not going to do much unless there is something in it."

The truth seems to be that, so far as editorial utterances are concerned, the press is losing its hold. The public have not failed to note that what should be a *judicial* profession is fast deteriorating to that of the advocate. It is no longer good politics to protest against party measures; it *is* good politics to defend or excuse them.

I believe that the modern growth of the review is a recognition by the public of the untrustworthy character of the average editorial opinion. The growth has been in answer to a demand, and the demand has come from a desire to have the honest thought of honest men. Certainly the tendency is in that direction, and it is a propitious state of affairs. It opens a way for the scholar in politics, and may lead to that happiest of political conditions, where the philosopher, thinking, leads, and the people, reflecting, follow and execute.

Chas. E. Wheeler.

Cleveland, O., June 14, 1890.

WILLIAM EATON AND OTHERS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your reference to the notice of John Glover in Appletons' new 'Cyclopædia of American Biography,' as contradicting the very book it cites for authority, moves me to set down one of the most monstrous and slovenly blunders of exactly the same sort, out of a work swarming with errors of gross carelessness. The article on William Eaton, the hero of Derne, states that he was "in 1791 chosen clerk of the House of Delegates, where he remained until 1797." In the first place, House of Delegates of what? He was born in Connecticut, graduated at Dartmouth College in New Hampshire, and died in Massachusetts; was it one of these three? Not at all—it was Vermont. But, more than this, he was in fact clerk of that House only for *one season*, 1791-2; and for the next five years was in the regular army, part of the time with Wayne in Ohio, the last year or two on the St. Mary's in Florida, where he was involved in a savage quarrel with his commandant over land claims of the latter, was in confinement for several weeks, defended himself in an acrimonious correspondence which was transmitted to the Secretary of War, and had his future career determined by the political acquaintance and advertising thus made. And all this occupies a whole chapter in the one popular source of information concerning Eaton—Felton's Life in Sparks's collection. I confess I admire the real genius that can blunder like this.

A few more items just as they come to memory; I have kept no memoranda.

In the notice of Blennerhassett, his wife's name is given as Adeline. Now, she signed her own letters Margaret, and her husband always speaks of her as "Maggie." The writer of the notice, I am pretty sure, caught the name Adeline from a hasty glimpse of a quotation from "Don Juan" given in Safford's 'Blennerhassett Papers,' where, moreover, it refers not to Mrs. B., but to the Marchioness of Wellesley.

The scrap of a notice of Lord Howe, of only twenty-five lines, contrives to give two different dates for his death (July 5 and 8), and *both wrong!* *Vide* Rogers's diary, where the events are set down in minute succession.

In the article on Gen. Wilkinson, at top of page 512, it is said that "He was made Governor of Louisiana in 1805, and in the autumn of *that year*" disclosed Burr's conspiracy. It should be "of the *next year*," 1806.

Edmund Fanning, the notorious adventurer who was responsible more than any other one man for the revolt of the North Carolina Regulators, is put down as Governor Tryon's son-in-law. This follows Sabine, but Wheeler ('Historical Collections of North Carolina') says, on

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the authority of Fanning's family, that it is not true.

Christine Chaplin Brush, the author of 'The Colonel's Opera-Cloak,' a real classic, recent as it is, and one of the most entertaining of American stories, is set down as an artist and writer of juvenile verse, but no hint is given that she ever wrote a word of prose in her life.

In the notice of Oliver Holden, Isaiah Thomas is turned into *Isaac*.

I could quadruple this list by a little effort, for the amount of slapdash, unverified hackwork in the volumes is something monumental. In spite of the impossibility of taking any of its statements on faith, the Cyclopædia is of very great value and service; but it might have been much more so but for its discreditable execution. F. M.

HARTFORD, CONN., June 12, 1890.

Notes.

ESTES & LAURIAT have in press 'The Pine-Tree Coast,' illustrations of the Maine seaboard, by Samuel Adams Drake.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. will publish next autumn a new story, 'Ascutney Street,' by Mrs. A. D. T. Whitney.

New library editions of the Waverley Novels, of the works of Dickens, and of Thackeray are announced by T. Y. Crowell & Co.

A portion of Dr. Julius Weisbach's 'Mechanics of Engineering' has been translated by Prof. T. F. Klein of Lehigh University, and will be brought out under the title 'Mechanics of the Machinery of Transmission,' by John Wiley & Sons.

The Harris Publishing Co., 10 Warren St., publish directly 'The Salmon Fisher,' by Charles Hallock, a work both practical and anecdotic.

Prof. Addison Ballard's three addresses on the true aim in teaching and study make a little volume with the fanciful title of 'Arrows' (A. S. Barnes & Co.). The mould of the discourse is clerical, but not narrow, and noticeable in a doctor of divinity is the perfect acceptance of woman's right to the highest education and its consequences. Strange language forty years (and less) ago, from such a source, would have been this: "I have myself the conviction that women can be trusted as safely as men to decide for themselves what spheres they can fill and what vocations it is suitable to follow."

An authorized translation of Prof. Paul Frédéricq's paper on 'The Study of History in Germany and France,' by Henrietta Leonard, has just been added to the Johns Hopkins University Studies, as No. v-vi of the eighth series. Miss Leonard is a graduate of Smith College, and has also translated Prof. Frédéricq for the fifth series. We have already spoken of the paper before us, which is not a piece of dry statistics, but a report of methods of instruction in history as learned from personal class-room visits.

Mrs. Burnett's 'Sara Crewe' has just been published in Paris in French, following an adaptation in that language, 'Le Petit Lord.' Two other American stories now to be had in French are Mr. Bellamy's 'La Sœur de Miss Ludington' and Miss Jewett's 'Le Roman de la Femme Médecin.'

'Les Américains chez eux,' by the Marquis San Carlos de Pedrosso, is announced in Paris for immediate publication. If we may judge from the four instalments printed in the latest numbers of the *Nouvelle Revue*, the book will not attain even to the value of Max O'Rell's little volume. Republication of these articles has been begun in the *Revue Française* for June (New York: W. R. Jenkins).

No doubt the most rigidly classical of French critics, M. Ferdinand Brunetière, has his admirers in America, and there is no need now to say much more about the latest collection of his essays from the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, 'Nouvelles Questions de Critique' (Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York: F. W. Christern), than to note its appearance and the fact that it contains an admirable and solidly thought-out paper on 'Le Mouvement Littéraire du XIXe Siècle.' Perhaps it may be of interest to record, also, that M. Brunetière refers to Sainte-Beuve's criticism of Chateaubriand and of Mme. de Staël as "spiteful" (*rancunière*).

In the 'Dernières Pages' of George Sand there is a pleasant account of the marionnettes of Nohant, and of the many little plays which she and her son prepared for the puppets. Some of these little pieces have now been published in 'Le Théâtre des Marionnettes de Maurice Sand' (Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York: Christern). From the number of characters introduced at one time, the plays are apparently intended for puppets worked by wires above, and not animated by the human thumb and fingers, as are the *pupazzi* of M. Lemercier de Neuville.

Any one who cares to consider the methods of the professional dancer may be recommended to read 'La Danse au Théâtre,' by Mademoiselle Berthe Bernay, formerly of the Paris Opéra (Paris: Dentu: New York: Christern). The positions and movements which are the elements of the terpsichorean art are here described, and are illustrated by neat little "process" cuts. Among the other illustrations are portraits of the leading ballet-dancers of the Opéra.

The first number of the organ of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, the *Annals*, will shortly be issued in Philadelphia. Politics in Canada and the United States, the Decay of Local Government in America, and Cheaper Railroad Fares are the subjects of noticeable articles.

The monthly *American Etcher* (New York: Geo. F. Kelly & Co.) makes its appearance as promised, "with an etching on Japanese paper in a mat." This etching is not such as to make the price of the magazine seem abnormally cheap; there is no reference to it in the text, and the artist's name is indicated only by initials. The letter-press is partly taken up with an elementary but not superfluous description of what etchings are and how they are made, by Mr. Frederick Keppel; and partly consists of "General Art Notes."

The June number of the *American Amateur Photographer* (Brunswick, Me.) will commence publication of an "Index Review Photographic"—strange English for "a complete review of photographic processes, methods, and substances, arranged in alphabetical order." The author is Dr. John H. Janeway. In a report of a recent meeting of the Society of Amateur Photographers of this city, we read the useful suggestion of the Secretary, "that the Society undertake the photographing systematically of the prominent portions of the city, something in the nature of a photographic survey." A semi-annual record of the city's skyline from the Jersey shore would be another curious and valuable undertaking.

M. Angot gave last winter, in a communication to the French Academy of Sciences, some details of interest concerning the temperature observations made on the Eiffel Tower from July to November last. The observations were made 988 feet above the ground, or 1,102 above sea-level, and the temperatures were obtained with a Richard thermograph. These were compared with similar records made at the Park of St. Maur, about ten miles southeast of Paris, and 164 feet above the sea. The difference was found to be much greater in summer and during the day, and smaller in winter and at night. On calm and clear nights the temperature at the summit was often nine or ten degrees higher than at the ground. During any alteration in the weather the change was frequently apparent at 980 feet elevation many hours, and often several days, before it was manifested at the base. These observations, in connection with those of wind velocity, previously discussed, prove, in a rather surprising manner, how greatly the meteorological conditions may vary at an altitude of less than 1,000 feet from those observed on the ground.

Dr. R. Assmann of Berlin has discussed in *Das Wetter* the influence of climate upon the recent epidemic of influenza. He considers that while we are yet in the infancy of bacteriological investigation, it is still admitted that harmful germs do exist in the air as well as in water. Certain meteorological changes, therefore, which take place in the atmosphere must affect the quantity and growth of these micro-organisms; and every precipitation of moisture necessarily removes from the air immense quantities of dust and germs. Tissandier found that four times as much dust existed after dry weather as after rain, while snow was found to carry away an amount yet larger. Although no definite quantitative investigations have been made, it is undoubtedly true that the micro-organisms have an active part in atmospheric dust. The first authentic reports of the epidemic were from Siberia and Russia in November, 1889. From the daily weather reports and charts of the German Naval Observatory, Dr. Assmann finds that that there was an unusually long drought in November throughout eastern and central Europe, which continued, especially in the East, partly through December. In these regions November has usually 40–60 mm. of moisture through precipitation, but the figures for November, 1889, frequently remained under 10 mm. Everywhere there were dry periods of from fourteen to sixteen days. The accumulation of dust in the air at this unusual season must have been very great, especially as there was no lasting covering of snow, even thinly spread. Low-lying clouds also prevented the carrying away into larger space of the atmospheric germs.

The Deerfield (Mass.) Summer School of History and Romance opens its fifth season on July 3, with three sessions per week till the end of the month. The President is Mr. L. J. B. Lincoln, who may be addressed at Deerfield.

From the third annual report of the Harvard Law School Association, it appears that nearly half the membership is of New England, and more than two-fifths of Massachusetts, but the entire Union is more or less represented, and nearly one-half of the School's alumni are enrolled. In three years the membership has more than doubled. The Society offers an annual prize for legal essays by the School's undergraduates, and has been instrumental in establishing a course in Massachusetts law for five years—a precedent for other States. The success of the *Harvard Law Review* has prompted a gift of the free distribution of it to non-subscribing members of the Association for 1890-91.

Prof. J. Lawrence Laughlin, late of Harvard University, has been elected Professor of Political Economy in Cornell University, and has

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accepted the position. Mr. Laughlin is well known to scholars as the author of 'The History of Bimetallism in the United States,' and also of an annotated edition of Mill's 'Political Economy,' and of an original work on the same science.

— The late John A. Lewis of Boston, whose death was a loss to the readers of the *Nation*, left behind him a very valuable library, of which a part was sold a few months ago. This was itself a large and notable collection, and the Trustees of the Boston Public Library could hardly have been prepared for the gift last month, by Mr. Lewis's widow, of the reserved portion, consisting of the rarer books illustrating American history. These are so numerous and so important as to be worthy of being specially set apart, and the Trustees have gladly accepted Mrs. Lewis's condition, that they be so kept and be called the John A. Lewis Library; and the donor has received the express thanks of the City Council. We abridge an official account of the new acquisition: The writings of the Mathers are numerously represented. Of Cotton Mather there are nearly a hundred publications; of Increase Mather, seventy; of Samuel Mather, twenty-three; of Richard Mather, four; and of Nathaniel Mather, one. There are twenty-six works by Thomas Prince; nineteen by John Cotton; several by William Penn, one of which bears the initials of his autograph; and a copy of the 'Rudiments of Latin Prosody,' and 'Dissertation on Letters,' by the patriot, James Otis. The copy of Hubbard's Narrative of the troubles with the Indians in New England, published at Boston in 1677, has the extremely rare map of New England, known as the "White Hills Map," as distinguished from the impression in which the New Hampshire mountains are called "Wine Hills." This map is said to be the first one cut in this country. Hubbard's Narrative was printed by John Foster, the first printer of Boston, of whose publications there are several specimens in the Lewis collection. Of books printed in the seventeenth century there are John Robinson's 'People's Plea,' 1618; Whitbourne's 'Discourse and Discovery of Newfoundland,' 1622; Hooker's 'Survey of the Summe of Church-discipline,' 1648; and 'The Soule's Preparation for Christ,' 1632; Underhill's 'Newes from America,' 1638; Wood's 'New-England's Prospect,' third edition, 1639; Hooke's 'New Englands Teares,' 1641; Welde's 'Answer to W. R.,' 1644; Ward's 'Simple Cobler of Aggawam,' 1647 and 1713; Mitchel's 'Nehemiah on the Wall in Troublesom Times,' published in 1671, and other Massachusetts election sermons; the Artillery election sermon, by Urian Oakes, published in 1674, and that of Samuel Nowell in 1678. Finally, there are several of the issues from Benjamin Franklin's press, including copies of the 'Poor Richard Improved Almanack.'

—The fifteenth and last volume of the Public Records of the Colony of Connecticut, edited by Dr. Charles J. Hoadly, State Librarian, has just been issued from the press of the Case, Lockwood & Brainard Co., Hartford. The series has been in course of publication for forty years, the first three volumes having been edited by Dr. J. Hammond Trumbull, the remaining twelve by Dr. Hoadly. The present volume contains all the records of the Colony of Connecticut, from May, 1775, and the record of the Council of Safety from their first sitting, June 7, 1775, to October 2, 1776, which was their last meeting, Dr. Hoadly informs us, before the session of the first General Assembly of the State of Connecticut, held on the second Thursday of that month. The records of the State covering the period of the Revolutionary War are yet to be printed. The curious student, as well as the historian and genealogist, will find these volumes valuable and interesting. Witchcraft trials, watch and ward in the French and Indian wars, the Connecticut militia system (at the outbreak of the Revolution the most perfect of any in the colonies, and a model for the Continental service), its officering, arming, and munitioning, the men and stores furnished by Connecticut in the various colonial wars, the disputes with New York and Massachusetts about boundaries—are some of the appetizing topics of these bulky volumes. The most interesting fact brought out in the latest is that the Declaration of Independence was never proclaimed in Connecticut. It came before the Governor and Council at Hartford on July 12, 1776, and was considered and "largely discoursed, and many things given out relative to the matter, etc., etc., and concluded to lay it by for the present." It was taken up again on the 18th, and again "largely discoursed," and it was finally thought best to let the matter remain for the determination of the General Assembly at their next stated session. But when the General Assembly convened in October, the immortal instrument had become so generally known that publication of it would have been a work of supererogation. The reason why the Governor and Council did not at once publish it is found further back in this same volume. On June 18 of the same summer, Gov. Trumbull, by the advice of his Council, and at the desire of the members of the General Assembly, issued a proclamation which contained many of the sentiments later embodied in the Declaration. This proclamation had been read in all the churches and printed on broadsides, and had become so well known to the people that publication of the Philadelphia paper was deemed unnecessary.

—Another interesting fact, showing the jealousy existing between the colonies at this period, is revealed by Dr. Hoadly in a foot-note on p. 83. At the May session, 1775, the House appointed Nathaniel Wales, Thaddeus Burr, and Pierrepont Edwards a committee to wait on the Provincial Congress of New York and the Provincial Congress of New Jersey, "to procure intelligence of the measures that might be adopted by them respecting the common cause of the British Colonies; to communicate a true state of the measures taken by the Colony of Connecticut; and to cultivate the friendship and harmony subsisting between those Provinces and this Colony." This was the ostensible object of the Commission; its real purpose was, however, to soothe the ruffled feelings of New York at the bold action of Connecticut in capturing Ticonderoga a short time previous. The three Commissioners appeared before the New York Congress on May 24. Messrs. Wales and Burr set out for home on the 26th, and Mr. Edwards proceeded to Trenton, and appeared before the Provincial Congress of New Jersey on the 29th. An appendix of more than 150 pages contains portions of Council Journals from 1663 to 1710, all (except the first) discovered in private hands, and secured since the publication of previous volumes.

—A reader of the *Nation*, himself editor of a denominational journal, writes that we did injustice to the Cincinnati *Herald and Presbyter* in our recent comments on its "brief free reading notices" in connection with school advertisements. This use of a technical (and now disreputable) term in its circular to advertisers was what, to our regret, misled us. Our correspondent says:

"The notices to which you refer are made of schools which do not advertise as well as of those which do. In their paper they publicly solicit catalogues, circulars, and descriptive matter from schools in order to notice as large a number as possible. These notices are descriptive, are placed in a column by themselves, and usually next advertisements—always away from editorial matter. In sending out advertising circulars they, of course, call attention to this feature, and request that notices be sent; but they also make the request through the paper, and make up a good many notices from other sources. Taking into account the position of these notices and the abuse of the notice business generally, it is not likely that any person who would patronize schools would consider them as of more weight than advertisements. They would be looked on more as the free 'ads.' in a free 'want column.' The *Herald and Presbyter* happens to be one of the cleanest papers in respect to advertising in the United States. I frequently make comparisons of religious papers, and find that the *Herald and Presbyter* continually rejects advertisements which appear in nearly all, if not all, the religious papers in New York. I think there is no New York paper which has as little that is objectionable."

—The winning of the Senior Wranglership by a woman is a memorable event in the history of education, and must be set down, moreover, as a weighty element in the determination of the relative mental abilities of the sexes. It is safe to say that no other contest for academic honors, anywhere in the world, equals in intensity, in difficulty, in the exhaustive inclusion of the strongest young minds of a great nation, the famous English mathematical ordeal at Cambridge. The winning of even the lowest wranglership implies a very high degree of ability and knowledge; but the problems proposed are of such extreme difficulty that it is not an uncommon thing for the senior wrangler to obtain *thirty* times as many marks as the man standing lowest on the list of honors; while below this man, who is about the hundredth in his class, stand the undistinguished crowd of 300 "poll men" who take no honors at all. That Miss Philippa Fawcett, a young woman of twenty-two, should have attained this extraordinary distinction in competition with the flower of English youths, ought for long to silence the confident assertion that women are inferior in mathematical ability to men. Not that one instance is sufficient to settle the matter, but that the assertion itself never had the smallest basis in observed fact, and that a single triumph in so crucial a test necessarily puts the burden of proof on the anti-woman side, for many years at least. Considering the very small numbers of the women as compared with the men, and remembering that only a few years ago—the first year, we believe, that women were admitted to the contest—Miss Scott took the high rank of eighth wrangler, the women of Cambridge may justly be very proud of their record. No one, however, can fully appreciate the greatness of the achievement unless he has seen the terrifying array of questions set to the contestants; questions the formidableness of which is realized vastly more fully by a professional mathematician than by one to whom all things belonging to the higher mathematics stand on a common level of inaccessibility. It remains to be seen whether Miss Fawcett will distinguish herself in independent work, as Madame Kowalewski, who was bred in the more generous and natural atmosphere of German universities, has done; but in the meanwhile, the high-pressure system of Cambridge, with its race-horse competition as be-all and end-all, has enabled Miss

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Fawcett to write a record of victory which he who runs may read.

—In *Nord und Süd* for June, Karl Theodor Gädertz publishes a number of posthumous poems and letters of Fritz Reuter, which, if they do not add materially to our knowledge of the literary character of the great humorist, bring at least once more to mind the inexhaustible joyousness and good nature of the man. In one of the letters, written a few years before his death, and directed to an old schoolmate of Jewish descent, Reuter announces his intention to make a bequest to the hospital of his native town, in the following words:

"The good God has abundantly blessed my literary pursuits, so that, as far as men can judge, I may look without care into the future. And now yesterday a nice little goldfish ran into my net which, I think, may be of benefit to your hospital. The German people, in other words, have done me the great honor to award to me, through the Committee of the Tiedge Fund at Dresden, a prize of 100 ducats. Of this sum I give to my dear native town the enclosed 250 thalers for the purpose mentioned, and the remainder shall be used in a similar manner. For I deem it wrong to employ such an honorable gift for meat and bread, and coats and trousers, unless one is in great distress. And because for long, long years I have known your faithful and honorable service in your calling, and your love and friendship for me, I send this gift to you. To you, the Jew, who in hours of need and persecution faithfully has stood by my side, I owe much more than to many a Christian puffed up by what he calls his belief."

MARTINEAU'S SEAT OF AUTHORITY IN RELIGION.

The Seat of Authority in Religion. By James Martineau. Longmans, Green & Co. 1890.

DR. MARTINEAU has been bearing "fruit in old age" in a remarkable manner. Since the completion of his four-score years he has published three important works in five large octavo volumes. But the 'Types of Ethical Theory' and the 'Study of Religion' were books in which, "fault of novel germs," he "matured the unfallen fruit." They contained the substance of his lectures in Manchester New College carefully revised. His latest work, in one volume of 664 pages, published in his eighty-sixth year, is really a fresher creation than the two preceding. The First Book, pp. 1–126, was written for an American magazine, *Old and New*, some seventeen years ago. So, too, was the first and a part of the second chapter of Book II. The remainder, constituting much the larger portion of the book, has been written very recently, and its results have been worked out in the broad light of the most recent German studies of the things in hand. In several instances of first-rate importance they differ widely from the results of Dr. Martineau's earlier studies—results which have done much to shape Unitarian opinion during the last half century. In these chapters there is not a sign of waning power. They have the splendid vigor of a complete maturity.

The book, as a whole, has, of course, much in common with its immediate predecessors and Dr. Martineau's earlier writings. There is something of the joy of battle upon almost every page. Dr. Martineau's talent is nothing if not polemical. Here, as elsewhere, he is a master of dialectic, and there are passages in which he seems almost indifferent to the goal, so happy is he in the course of subtile discrimination and elimination which he steadily pursues. There are those who have great admiration for his style, while some have called it meretricious. It is exceedingly rhetorical, but, evidently, is so without effort. There are no similes, but of metaphors there is no end, and their complete interfusion of the sign with the thing signified is frequently bewildering.

The 'Ethics' and 'Religion,' anticipating the First Book of the present volume, almost convinced the orthodox that Martineau had become as one of them. The other books of this volume will disabuse them with what may seem to them a certain rudeness. Yet it will be no surprise to those who know the course of Dr. Martineau's thought for nearly sixty years. Philosophically conservative since his conversion to intuitionalism some forty years ago, or since intuitionalism became conservative as opposed to the new experiential system, he has always been theologically and critically radical, and the theological and critical elements of his present work will be painful and appalling, not only to many of his orthodox admirers, but to many of the more conservative Unitarians, who have foolishly imagined that Dr. Martineau could be counted on their side. It is certain that from no Unitarian scholar have we ever had a mass of criticism of the New Testament and of ordinary conceptions of Jesus and his work so thoroughgoing in its destructive radicalism as that which we have here, while the amount of comfort the conventionally orthodox are likely to derive from Dr. Martineau's valedictory can easily be gathered from such sentences as these:

"Christianity, as defined or understood in all the churches which formulate it, has been mainly evolved from what is transient and perishable in its sources; from what is unhistorical in its traditions, mythological in its preconceptions, and misapprehended in the oracles of its prophets. From the fable of Eden to the imagination of the last trumpet, the whole story of the divine order of the world is dislocated and deformed."

"To consecrate and diffuse, under the name of 'Christianity,' a theory of the world's economy thus made up of illusions from obsolete stages of civilization, immense resources, material and moral, are expended, with effect no less deplorable in the province of religion than would be, in that of science, hierarchies and missions for propagating the Ptolemaic astronomy and inculcating the rules of necromancy and exorcism" (p. 650).

The subject of Book II. is "Authority Artificially Misplaced," and its first chapter treats of "The Catholics and the Church." The notes of catholicity, sanctity, and apostolicity, claimed by the Roman Church as proofs of its authority, are subjected to a searching examination which will invite ingenious evasion rather than a frank reply, if any children of the venerable mother choose to heed the challenge, as very likely they will not. The "Protestants and the Scriptures" is the second topic of this Part. The treatment of the Pauline Epistles is extremely scanty and lacks clearness. We are left in doubt what epistles are accepted as genuine. In this connection there is a passage, of surprising interest, illustrating the possibility of grave mistakes in the attribution of authorship to celebrated persons. 'The Character of a Christian set forth in Paradoxes and Seeming Contradictions' was published as Bacon's in 1648, and is still widely quoted as his, his modern editors inclining to doubt, but being unable to disprove, its authenticity. In 1865 it was shown by Dr. Grosart to be the work of Herbert Palmer, Master of Queens College, Cambridge, a Westminster divine, and to have been published as his both before and after its inclusion with Bacon's writings. The Paradoxes illustrate as well as ever the intellectual temper of the time, but Dr. Grosart's discovery relieves Bacon's character from much unjust imputation, and makes absurd a little mountain of apology and abuse to which the Paradoxes have given rise.

The treatment of the Synoptic Gospels argues their indebtedness to a common source. Breaking them up into one hundred and seventy-four sections, Dr. Martineau finds that fifty-eight belong to all three. Of the unshared elements thirty-one are found in Luke, seven in Matthew, and only three in Mark. Another interesting estimate is of the days of Jesus's ministry. Of four hundred and fifty implied by the Synoptics, only thirty-five are accounted for; while once of three months, and again of two, there is a total silence. The conclusion is, from various lines of argument, that the Synoptics are "composed of mixed materials, aggregating themselves through three or four generations; they report no authorship in any case, and no date, except of their unhistorical accretions." For the birth and infancy of Jesus, thirty years behind his ministry, with their "false chronology, irreconcilable contradictions, historical prodigies, and fabulous mode of prediction," they offer us no points of contact whatever. The interest increases with the entrance of the Fourth Gospel on the scene of the discussion. Dr. Martineau's conclusions here, with those of Dr. Tayler, saintliest of English Unitarians, have long been a grievance to the Unitarian conservative. His conclusion that the Gospel made its appearance midway of the second century is more significant because of his confession of "the strongest drawing of sympathy towards the characteristics of this Gospel." Reviewing the external testimony, the results he attains are that it was "probably not known to Justin (about 155), possibly to the author of the Clementines (about 170), . . . cited by Apollinaris (about 175), for the first time *named* by Theophilus of Antioch (about 180); the Fourth Gospel would seem to have become known in the sixth or seventh decade of the second century, and to have ceased to be anonymous in the eighth." Any earlier date than the fifth decade of the second century is found too early for its appearance. The battle has raged hottest around Justin's quotations. But allowing them to be from the Fourth Gospel, Dr. Martineau's conclusion is the same.

A consideration of the internal character of the Gospel reaches the same result. Its relation to the Apocalypse furnishes Dr. Martineau with his most interesting critical theme. Those who have denied the Johannine authorship of the Gospel have generally accepted that of the Apocalypse. Not so Dr. Martineau. The unity of its composition was first questioned in 1882 by Dr. Voelter of Tübingen, whose doubts have since been confirmed to Dr. Martineau's satisfaction, but with a difference. Dr. Martineau, following Harnack, who follows here his pupil Eberhard Vischer, finds in the Apocalypse of John a Jewish Apocalypse with Christian interpolations, including the three introductory chapters and an Epilogue, ch. xxii. 6-21. The Jewish part was a product of the period immediately preceding the fall of Jerusalem in 70 A. D. The final recension was probably not before 136 A. D. The relation of the fourth Gospel to the Paschal Controversy has always been with Dr. Martineau one of the most conclusive arguments against the Johannine authorship, and that is here worked out with great carefulness. In his elaborate treatment of the Acts of the Apostles, Dr. Martineau keeps the general course of the Tübingen school, but is less "vigorous and rigorous" than Hilgenfeld.

We must pass over Book III, in which revealed religion is distinguished from natural

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religion as intuitional belief—a very doubtful business. The first chapter of Book IV is a severely earnest treatment of apocalyptic religion as the travesty of revealed. Chapters follow on "Theories of the Person of Jesus," "Theories of the Work of Jesus," and "Theories of Union with God." Never before has there proceeded from any Unitarian writer, with any such elaboration, such a frank confession of the divergence of Unitarian opinion from the New Testament standards. Indeed, Dr. Martineau finds in the New Testament much more confirmation of traditional orthodoxy than does the new orthodoxy of the present time. He does not, therefore, propose to desert the Unitarian camp, for his Christianity is the personal religion of Jesus, and this he finds miserably overlaid and disfigured by those elements which are most favorable to a traditional orthodoxy.

The most significant feature of these chapters is the insistence that Jesus did not regard himself as the Messiah in any sense, even the most spiritual. This insistence is strongly at variance with the average tendency of critical opinion, but Dr. Martineau's reasoning is closely knit and cannot easily be broken through. The resurrection fares as the Messiahship, and just as we are thinking that the sifted sediment of the residuum must be very small indeed, we are told (p. 602), "The portions of the Synoptic texts which remain on hand, after severing what the foregoing rules exclude, can by no means be accepted *en masse* as all equally trustworthy. They are relieved simply of the impossible, and contain only what *might be* true." And then begins another process of exclusion, in which we sometimes seem to catch a note of personal preference, as if Dr. Martineau were constructing a man after his own heart. We often wish that he would give us chapter and verse for some of the features of that personality which he evokes from the wide ruin he has made. Certainly no reverent disciple of Jesus has ever stripped away so much of the traditional raiment of Jesus. Does not even Strauss, in his new 'Leben Jesu,' leave us more of history and fact? But in his closing chapters Dr. Martineau, on a mere film of biography, strings, like a row of opalescent beads, his views of the purely human personality of Jesus. In the response of the human soul to this personality, as to all spiritual excellence higher than its own, Dr. Martineau finds the Seat of Authority in Religion.

MORE FICTION.

The Career of a Nihilist. By Stepniak. Harper & Bros.

Kit and Kitty. By R. D. Blackmore. Harper & Bros.

Prince Fortunatus. By William Black. Harper & Bros.

The Story of Tonty. By Mary Hartwell Catherwood. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.

Allan's Wife, and Other Tales. By H. Rider Haggard. Harper & Bros.

A Waif of the Plains. By Bret Harte. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

The Dean's Daughter. By Sophie F. F. Veitch. D. Appleton & Co.

Warp and Woof; or, New Frames for Old Pictures. By Frances Hartson Wood and Eva Paine Kitchel. Boonton, N. J.: F. H. Wood.

If Stepniak's 'Russia Under the Tsars' is, as it has every appearance of being, an unexaggerated statement of facts, there is very little fiction in his 'Career of a Nihilist.' The novelist's hand is shown only in the construction of a consecutive narrative and in the limitation and concentration of action. Every reader of newspapers is familiar with the incidents of the novel, and has already a fairly distinct impression of the character of Audrey and his fellow-conspirators. What the character lacks in variety it makes up in terribly centralized force—force is indeed a weak word to describe the fury that possesses the Nihilist, and whirls him madly along a road that leads to an ignominious death or more horrible death in life. No revolutionary movement has ever presented such a spectacle of self-immolation, and no self-immolation has ever appeared so futile and unfruitful of results. Ever since the imperial ukase of Alexander II. recalled to Russia those young subjects who, spread about civilized Europe, were imbibing, along with general and harmless knowledge, particular and dangerous notions of political freedom, every Nihilist and group of Nihilists has fought the autocracy with similar heroism, similar ineffectiveness, and the issue of the struggle is ever—like the judgments of the Czar's tribunals—inevitably decided beforehand.

Stepniak's characters are as typical of the Nihilists of twenty-five years ago as of the Nihilists of to-day. The movement began by a peaceful propaganda of subversive socialistic literature; when the propagandists were oppressed, they retaliated with violence and made the murder of the Czar their chief aim and object. Except that the Terrorist party may now be in the minority and the propagandists, or Peasantists, in the majority, a quarter of a century has wrought no change or progress. The autocracy has become more cruel, despotic, and altogether abominable, but its enemies have never, so far as the world knows, formed a plan, or even conceived an idea, which, if executed, would probably destroy it. In Stepniak's novel nothing strikes the foreigner so forcibly as the limited vision of the conspirators. If half the ingenuity shown in eluding the ubiquitous police and making useless attempts to rescue imprisoned comrades were devoted to formulating a wider revolutionary scheme, the cause would be more hopeful, the actors more likely to attract universal sympathy. Their lack of political sagacity and of power to combine, to work silently, and to wait, may perhaps be attributed to their youth. If every Nihilist is to be shot or exiled before he is thirty years old, a Czar and his minions and myrmidons are likely to reign for ever in the way that suits themselves.

The chief hope for the remaining one hundred millions of Russians lies, as Stepniak points out, in the intervention of other nations on the ground of a common humanity. One of the contentions of adherents of the "religion of humanity" is, that it has a greater active force for good than Christianity, trammelled with dogma, ever had. If any of its high priests were to begin to preach a crusade against the Czar, as Peter the Hermit preached against the infidel defiling Christianity's Holy of Holies, it would be interesting to see how many avowed Humanitarians would flock from their shops and offices and higher places to do military service, to right such horrible wrongs with fire and sword. No better practical test of the active force of an abstract, impersonal religion could possibly be imagined.

Mr. Blackmore's novels are always different from other people's, and the difference is generally in his favor. He is more strongly and seriously dramatic than some, more thoughtful and truth-loving than many; he goes immeasurably more slowly than most. 'Kit and Kitty' widens the gulf of separation, and may possibly be another proof of the author's superiority to his average brother. The title is one of those which compel inferences. It forecasts a novel perhaps drowsy and sensuous, perhaps sprightly and mischievous, certainly light in touch, with hints of frivolity. No one could ever expect it to be more than drowsy, more than dull—one of the most solemnly stupid novels that have ever been written in any tongue.

The story is told by Kit, a rarely bucolic specimen to be domiciled near London in the year 1860. Kit is a market gardener who falls in love with Kitty, a maiden of comparatively high degree. Before their marriage Kitty's story is the same as Cinderella's, unenlivened by such delightful surprises as the pumpkin coach and gorgeous ball dress. Her stepmother is a person worth dwelling upon because she is as vicious as Cinderella's and all the other stepmothers that have ever lived, put together. In her youth she was famed for beauty and ferocity of temper. On the eve of her sister's marriage with the Hon. Thomas Bulwray, she took a notion to marry the gentleman herself, so she locked up the sister in a barn and forced the fiancé to elope with her. By the time she had had a son and two daughters, all quite as wicked as she, the Honorable Thomas withdrew from the family circle, and sought the joys of peace and a quiet life in South America, where, at that period, a lively struggle for existence was going on among the cut-throat populations of divers States. He speedily found rest, and when news of his death came, Mrs. Bulwray took to her bosom another victim with a daughter Kitty. All the Bulwrays let loose their frolicsome spirits on Kitty. They beat her and starved her and prohibited her wearing anything but rags. Even when Kit has married her, and installed her in a vine-clad cot, the wanton villains still pursue her, and succeed in separating man and wife for two miserable years. The Bulwray star is supremely ascendant when Nemesis comes on the scene and completely satisfies the demands of poetic and fairy-tale justice. Nemesis takes a most awful shape and most unexpected, that of the Honorable Thomas, not dead at all, but made horrible by leprosy, come home to have it out with madam before the grave shall close over him. His vengeance is thorough—culminating in a Bulwray family fight in which father and son are slain, and which madam survives only to become a raving maniac.

This slight sketch of the plot shows that its materials are thrilling and of an honorable antiquity. Nothing short of a transcription of the book could prove that the accusation of stupidity is not an aspersion recklessly flung upon Mr. Blackmore. It is through the elaborate torpor of Kit's style, with its pompous affectation of naïveté, that he achieves a stupidity quite beyond the range, and, we hope, the aspiration, of any contemporary.

Mr. Black's singing hero, Prince Fortunatus, like Kit, loves above his station, only to have his affection blighted by a "No," sweeter, however, than another's "Yes." After a proper season of alternate self-abnegation and desperate follies, winding up in brain fever, he consoles himself with the faithful adoration of a young Italian person no better than himself socially, and rather worse artistically. No genius is needed to extend these simple sorrows into a very dull romance; the wonder here is, that, interwoven with equally simple joys, they make a very readable story, which gently stimulates curiosity to the end, and then modestly effaces itself from memory.

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Prince Fortunatus is a well-known ingredient of modern society; he seems to have become an essential one. Women cry for him. He has routed the parrot and the canary, and in drawing-rooms where he deigns frequently to loll, a diminution of worship for small, long-haired dogs is noticeable. Sometimes he sings, sometimes paints, sometimes reads Browning with original notes, sometimes only looks. Occasionally he "draws" by extravagant affectation. In this phase Mr. Gilbert satirized him. Male relations generally consider him harmless and scrupulously avoid him. Once in a great while he has some manly qualities, and would be a very good fellow if it weren't for the women. Prince Fortunatus is of the occasional lot, and probably would never have discredited his sex if he hadn't been "taken up" by Lady Adela. Lady Adela is the "tall and elegant young English matron" made familiar to the vulgar by Mr. DuMaurier. She and her tall and elegant sisters are badly afflicted with the modern craze for notoriety, and in their pursuit of it are far more reprehensible than are short and scrubby female nobodies, who have at least the excuse of pressing pecuniary necessity. The satire on these elegant ladies is not keen enough to provoke the displeasure of their prototypes, nor to move them to reform.

Mr. Black reserves his scorn for Quirk, the literary hack whom Lady Adela coddles unscrupulously in order to secure favorable notices of her trashy novel. Quirks are offensive creatures, but, for all their power to make or unmake literary reputations, quite unworthy of so much wrath. Besides, this one is not nearly so amusing to read about as are Lady Adela and her sisters; not half so mirth-provoking as the stately Miss Honnor Cunyngham, the object of Mr. Black's homage, as she was the adored of Prince Fortunatus even after she had refused him. Mr. Black's enthusiasm for a woman who can cast a fly increases with every novel. Here is one who, for several successive weeks, does nothing but fish, barely desisting long enough during the daylight to snatch a scanty meal. In the evenings she sits about silently smiling at the artistic diversions of her feather-brained sisters-in-law. Mr. Black wishes to represent her as immensely superior, yet benignantly tolerant, whereas every one knows that, after her day's labor, the mental effort of keeping herself awake is all she is equal to. Her ultimate marriage with the somnolent Lord Rockminster is a very good proof of her intellectual calibre. The skill to land a salmon may be a picturesque accomplishment for an otherwise charming girl, but it doesn't seem to be a sufficient reason for apotheosis.

In 'The Story of Tonty,' Mrs. Catherwood continues her efforts to popularize the history of French exploration in America. A history made by men of striking personality and frequently brilliant antecedents presents to the writer of romance an embarrassment of choice, and Mrs. Catherwood has twice chosen well. She perceives an opportunity, but fails to make the best of it. She is hampered by the old-fashioned notion that romance is inseparable from love, and rejects much truth that is both romantic and dramatic, to make room for melodramatic fiction. A man does not need to be a Dollard, a La Salle, or a Tonty to love, fortunately or unfortunately, and a story which leaves in the reader's mind the impression that these heroic figures were, before all things, lovers, is defective and derogatory to their real historic dignity. The author is so occupied in working up fictitious passion of La Salle for the ascetic Jeanne Le Ber, and of Tonty for Mlle. Cavelier, that their passion for exploration of unknown lands—the passion which won them enduring fame—seems secondary and insignificant. No prominence is given by illustrative incident to the great qualities of the two men, the irrepressibly initiative spirit of the one, and the resourceful loyalty of the other. Mrs. Catherwood even slights her avowed motive, to pay honor to the memory of Henri de Tonty, whom she, somewhat enthusiastically, calls La Salle's "greater friend." She has used very little of the material furnished by Tonty's authenticated narrative, which is full of instances of his patience and courage in carrying out the designs of his leader, and which offers the best and also the most romantic testimony to the capacity for friendship possessed by the man with the iron hand. It is very hard to see why, for the sake of a trivial theatrical situation, she should have rejected the facts concerning Tonty's long ignorance of La Salle's death. It is almost wicked to throw away such a chance for fine characterization of a chosen hero as that presented by Tonty's few short sentences referring to the months of weary, anxious waiting for news, and his description of the fruitless quest to the Gulf of Mexico undertaken long after La Salle's body had been left to the buzzards by the banks of Trinity River.

No fault can be found with the author's prejudice in favor of one of her heroes when she refers to the continual quarrels between La Salle and his enemies. Many of his enemies were, indeed, his creditors; but on the whole he was unfairly treated in life and maligned after death, and is worthy of unstinted admiration. We are glad that Mrs. Catherwood refrained from printing in foot-notes facsimiles of La Salle's unpaid bills. Her propensity for dispensing foot-note information is fatiguing. People who don't know where the romancer differs from the historian don't care, and people who do know don't need to be told.

Mr. Haggard's volume entitled 'Allan's Wife' includes the literary remains of Hunter Quatermain, or, at least, a portion of them. We can never be sure that we are reading positively the last yarn of that bold yet lachrymose adventurer. The title story tells how he courted and married that wife to whom sentimental and obscure references may be found in many of his published works. The course of his true love was frequently ruffled by the insane jealousy, not of a rival suitor, but of a Babyan-frau—that is, a creature born a woman and bred a baboon. When the baboon-woman realizes that the Hunter has hopelessly distanced her in her mistress's affections, she goes away and meditates vengeance. She is reasonably sure of accomplishing that, because she has hosts of baboons at her beck and call, and can manage them admirably, thanks to her perfect familiarity with their language. In due season she swoops upon the Hunter's paradise, destroys it, and drives him forth sorrowing into a lonely world. The baboon episode is the only one in the book which does not appear to be a réchauffé of those episodes on the narration of which the Hunter's diffidence always makes it painful for him to enter, and out of which he never comes second-best.

It seems a long time now since Bret Harte has given us anything except réchauffés. The materials which make up 'A Waif of the Plains' are worn to death. The first incident, the loss of two children from an emigrant train crossing the great central plains, is pathetic, and the boy's self-sacrificing care of the little girl promises an interesting development. The promise is not fulfilled. The subsequent adventures of Clarence Brant are sensational, commonplace, and common: the people he meets with are feeble and faint images, pale ghosts of the motley throng of vagabonds, terribly alive, who conquered the reading world when Bret Harte sent them trooping forth to make known the West unto the East and beyond. There is a generally accepted belief or supposition that when a story-teller loses the fire and vigor of youth, the compensation for the loss is increased literary grace, a smoother, more polished, more effective literary style. Such compensation, poor as it is, is denied us by Bret Harte. His early stories had a spontaneous perfection of form. They seemed to be born, not made. The saddest evidence of falling off in 'A Waif of the Plains' is its aimless incompleteness. With Bret Harte, distinctively American fiction (fiction that could never have been written in any country except America) sprang into being. He was the creator, and now he is among the destroyers. It is always sad to see a man not only falling short of his best, but belittling it; it is especially so in literature. In some countries there is a custom of giving pensions to literary men who have arrived at the stage of incapable senility: America might improve on that custom by pensioning writers when the first signs of decadence are noted, on condition that they shall never more put pen to paper.

The whole action of 'The Dean's Daughter' turns upon an exaggerated idea of self-sacrifice. The fact is continually insisted upon that Vera Dormer is a "Bohemian," from her earliest introduction at nine years old, when already her independence and fine horsemanship are her strong points. At eighteen she performs the extraordinary feat of catching a runaway horse — herself upon horseback — whose rider is her chief rival and enemy, thus saving the girl's life at what seemed the certain loss of her own. Later, when this same Edith Cranley is married, but is known to be forming a dangerous intimacy with a dissipated army officer, Vera voluntarily places herself in an exceedingly anomalous position to save the reputation of this weak-minded woman, who, of course, allows the deception to be spread abroad as truth. As a further irony, her husband sees fit, on account of these reports, to break off Edith's acquaintance with Vera, whose heroism is called actively into play to prevent her telling him the actual facts. And to crown this singular young woman's actions, she accuses herself in open court of having forged the signature to a will, in order to protect the man who, from the purely unselfish purpose of saving an estate to its rightful heir, and thwarting a villain, did commit the forgery. It is a strange story, well and even strongly written, but in no sense either comfortable or satisfactory.

Many are called to write a great book, but few are chosen. It is evident that prohibition and woman suffrage have not found their prophets in the authors of 'Warp and Woof.' It is plentifully sprinkled with italics, abbreviations, and quotation marks; its characters write "postals" and attend "socials," and much is called "real nice." It is one of a large class of stories written with the best intentions, but with too evident lack of power and cultivation to produce much effect, in a way either moral or literary.

RIBOT'S PSYCHOLOGY OF ATTENTION.

The Psychology of Attention. By Th. Ribot. Authorized translation. Chicago: The Open Court Publishing Company. 1890. 8vo, pp. 121.

EVERY educated man wants to know something of the new psychology. Those who have

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still to make acquaintance with it may well begin with Ribot's little book on 'Attention,' which all who have made progress in the new science will certainly wish to read. It is the *chef d'œuvre* of one of the best of those students who have at length erected psychology into a science.

Ribot regards the doctrine of attention as "the counterpart, the necessary complement, of the theory of association." He means that attention is related to suggestion as inhibition to muscular contraction. Physiologists, however, would scarcely rank *inhibitibility* with contractility as an elementary property of protoplasm. Besides, though suggestion by association may be likened to muscular action, how can the analogy be extended to the process of association itself, or the welding together of feelings? This welding seems to be the only law of mental action; and upon it suggestion and inhibition of suggestion alike depend. Attention is said by Ribot to modify reverie's train of thought by inhibiting certain suggestions, and thereby diverting their energy to suggestions not inhibited. This makes the positive element of attention quite secondary. At the same time, we are told that the sole incitement to attention is interest. That is to say, a preconceived desire prepares us to seize promptly any occasion for satisfying it. A child's cry, drowned in clatter of talk for others' ears, attracts the mother's attention because she is in some state of preparation for it. Ribot, however, does not remark that to say the mind acts in a prepared way is simply to say it acts from a formed association, such action not being inhibitory. If interest be the sole incitement to attention, it is that the energy spent upon the interesting suggestion leaves none for others, rather than that a positive inhibition of the latter throws waste energy into the former. This only happens when attention is controlled for a conscious purpose. If, in the beginning of his inquiry, Ribot had discarded the unscientific word "attention," and with it his feeble antithesis of association and attention, the truth would have shone out that the main phenomenon is emotional association, aided in certain cases by acts of inhibition.

The most interesting and valuable parts of the book are those devoted to corporeal concomitants of attention. Evidence is that in this act parts of the brain receive increase of blood. This must be due to stimulation of the vaso-motor nerves, belonging to the sympathetic system, under the influence of the desire in the interest of which attention is excited. Moreover, in intense attention the breath is held, and in every case respiration is slackened. There are, besides, certain muscular actions: in external attention, the eyebrows and the skin of the forehead over them are drawn up, the eyes opened wide and directed to the object, the jaw more or less dropped, and the whole body held immobile in an attitude as if approaching the object. In internal attention, the brow is contracted, the eyebrow lowered, the lid at least partially closed, the jaw clenched, the lips pursed up, the body usually immobile, preferentially in a sitting posture with the whole arms close to the trunk. There are, however, often motions, as walking up and down. These muscular states are indispensable conditions of attention. "It is impossible to reflect while running at full speed or climbing a steep ascent." "A child, seven years old," not able to breathe through its nose, owing to a tumor, "had succeeded in learning, during a whole year, only the first three letters of the alphabet. Having been operated upon for its adenoid tumor, the same child in a single week learned the entire alphabet."

According to Ribot, these muscular actions are not *aids* to attention, but constitute attention. The notion that we think with our muscles is very attractive to the whole new school. Ask why, and you are told, because "every act of volition, whether impulsive or prohibitory, acts only upon muscles and through muscles; any other conception is vague, incomprehensible, and chimerical." This little burst of emphasis signifies defective evidence. When positive evidence is at hand, it is calmly put in; when prejudices have to be addressed, warmth is in order. The truth is, all these physiological psychologists are "monists." For theory of connection of soul and body, they have struck a happy compromise between materialism and spiritualism, in holding that mind and matter are simply two aspects of the same thing. If the balance were really preserved between the opposing tendencies, the result would be a doctrine in harmony with philosophic pessimism, but not easily reconciled with observed facts. But is the balance held even by the psychophysicists? They say, for example, that unorganized matter feels, if at all, very little. But when we expect them to balance this by cases in which mind is barely, if at all, connected with matter, they insist, on the contrary, that the attributes of matter do not admit of augmentation and remission, and that soul only exists as an aspect of that which otherwise appears as corporeal. What is this but making mind to be a special determination of that universal substance which is generally known to us as matter? And to make mind a specialization of matter would seem, metaphysical phrases apart, to be materialism. In our day, the charge of being materialist will scare nobody; and all the facts of life show dependence of soul upon body. Yet common sense will never admit that feeling can result from any mechanical contrivance; and sound logic refuses to accept the makeshift hypothesis that consciousness is an "ultimate" property of matter in general or of any chemical substance.

No philosophy will endure which does not freely allow to every reason, every fact, its full force. But this school is for ever exaggerating the resemblances of psychical and physical phenomena, for ever extenuating their differences. Ribot, for example, often speaks of the "mechanism of association," and even attempts to apply to it the physical distinction of potential and kinetic energy. But looking at the matter without prepossession, or with that of a student of mechanics, the analogy between the process of association and any mechanical motion does not appear to be very close. Both are operations governed by law, it is true. But the law of mechanics is absolute, prescribing (after two positions are given) the precise point of space where each particle shall be at each instant of time; while the force of association is essentially a gentle one (two ideas that have occurred together having a gentle tendency to suggest one another), and if it were made absolute, ideas would at once be rigidly bound together, and the whole phenomena of learning, or generalization, which is the essence of association, would be put to death.

Again, alike in the physical and the psychical world, we find trains of causation. In the latter, it is the past alone which directly and involuntarily influences the present by association; the future we only divine; and all our efforts are to make our present actions conform to our idea of that future. In the physical world, on the contrary, regard being had to the law of the conservation of energy, which denies any primordial force dependent on velocity, the past and the future are in relations to the present precisely similar to one another—a fact which appears from the circumstance that, in the equations of motion, the sign of the flow of time may be reversed, provided the signs of the velocities are reversed, the forces being unchanged, and still the formulæ will remain intact. We will not say that these distinctions between mental and mechanical actions are facts large enough to blot out their slight resemblances, for these latter should neither be overlooked nor disregarded; but the distinctions will certainly be prominent in a well-proportioned view of the subjects. Undoubtedly, there are physical phenomena in which gentle forces seem to act, and others which seem to violate the principle of energy; but these appearances are due to a principle different from a law of motion, namely, to the action of probability. The type of such phenomena is the viscosity of a gas; and the regularity of this, closely approximate but not strictly exact, is due to the countless trillions of molecules which are flying about in all directions with almost every rate of speed. That there is analogy between spreading of motion through a gas by viscosity and association of ideas need not be denied.

In regard to the doctrine that volition consists in, or is an aspect of, muscular contraction or inhibition, it is to be considered that considerable time elapses during the passage of the motor impulse down the nerve. During this interval we seem to be aware of a striving, like that of nightmare. At any rate, something has taken place in which the muscle had no part. The muscle might even be amputated before the impulse reached it. But if a motor impulse can thus be communicated to a nerve fibre to be transmitted over it, how can we be sure that this latter may not abut against a nerve cell instead of against a muscle cell?

Ribot's terminology sometimes seems open to criticism. Of the two forms of attention, that which is governed by the course of outward perceptions and that which is controlled from within by definite purposes, he terms the former *spontaneous*, the latter *voluntary*. Now, suppose a man in a sudden fit of anger blackguards another, can it be said that his speech was *involuntary* simply because it was not controlled? And if he wished to excuse himself on the ground of sudden provocation, would he say that his language was purely *spontaneous*? It would seem better to call every action which is subject to inward control *voluntary*, whether actually controlled or not, and to apply the term *spontaneous* only to those acts which are *not* reflexes from external stimuli.

The translation is sufficiently good, and the *Open Court* is doing useful work in publishing such books.

DANA'S LATEST PUBLICATIONS.

Characteristics of Volcanoes. With contributions of facts and principles from the Hawaiian Islands. By James D. Dana. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1890.

Corals and Coral Islands. Third edition. By James D. Dana, LL.D., Professor of Geology, etc. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1890.

It is now half a century since the author of the above-named works, then in his twenty-seventh year, made his first visit to the active and dormant volcanoes of the Sandwich Islands.

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In spite of his youth, he already possessed a thorough scientific training, and, what is more difficult to obtain, a wide geological field experience. In 1834 he had visited the volcanic region of the Mediterranean, and made an examination of Vesuvius, of whose varied and destructive eruptions we possess an almost continuous record since the commencement of the Christian era, and of Stromboli, also classical in the records of vulcanism as being the only known volcano that has been in a constant state of activity during the past 3,000 years. In 1838 he had been appointed geologist of the Wilkes Exploring Expedition, and, before reaching the Sandwich Islands, had already visited the most important scenes of volcanic energy in the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans. In 1841 the good ship *Peacock*, on which he was voyaging, was wrecked on the bar at the mouth of the Columbia River in Oregon, but the young geologist with his shipmates succeeded in reaching the shore of his native land at Cape Disappointment. After some investigations among the extinct volcanoes of the Pacific Coast, he returned to his professional duties at Yale College.

In 1860 Prof. Dana made another visit to Vesuvius, and in 1887, for a second time, he journeyed to the Sandwich Islands, and made further personal examinations of the Hawaiian volcanoes. Some of the scientific observations made during this last trip were published in the *American Journal of Science*, and to them, in a recent paper upon the Tertiary volcanoes of Scotland, read before the Geological Society of London, Prof. J. W. Judd, President of the Society, made the following striking allusion:

"Geologists all over the world may well hesitate as to which calls for the greater admiration—the vigor and enthusiasm which prompted our esteemed foreign member to undertake a journey of ten thousand miles in order to clear up difficulties left in his original studies of the district in 1840, or the new and valuable results obtained by the investigations of one who, after nearly a half-century of thought and inquiry, has returned to the field of his early observations."

Every student of geology is familiar with Dana's various text-books of geology and mineralogy which have long held the highest position in their respective branches, in Europe as well as in America. Every investigator and working geologist appreciates the great value of his theoretical views upon the larger problems in regard to the structure of our globe, which have been arrived at with great caution and after an immense accumulation of facts of personal observation, and hence have long stood the test of practical application to the phenomena of nature, where more brilliant and startling, but less well-founded, hypotheses have gradually been set aside. Moreover, in spite of his great modesty and entire absence of self-assertion, it has fallen to the lot of few scientific men to find during their life-time such universal recognition of their great merits, as much among foreigners as by their own countrymen. He was one of the original founders of the National Academy of Science and of the Geological Society of America, and is honorary member of the foremost scientific societies of all the nations of Europe.

It will be with more than usual interest, therefore, that the first systematic enunciation of his views upon the most mysterious and interesting of all geological phenomena, the outward and visible manifestations of volcanic energy, will be greeted by the scientific world. No problem in nature has been more fruitful of speculative hypotheses than the cause and origin of the various phenomena of volcanic activity. Its solution involves the determination of the condition of our globe at the time of its first consolidation, of that of its interior at the present moment, and indirectly of the whole question of mountain building and the manner of formation of the earth's surface-reliefs. That it still remains so largely a purely speculative question is due in great measure to the fact that, at the critical periods of the manifestations of volcanic energy — that is, during active eruptions—close and accurate observations of volcanic phenomena are in most cases not only dangerous to human life, but physically impossible.

Dana early recognized that in the eruptions of the Hawaiian volcanoes, which are of the non-explosive type—that is, consisting of quiet outflows of molten lava unaccompanied by the destructive showers of rock fragments, scoria, and volcanic ash, which, in the explosive eruptions of volcanoes of the Vesuvius type, have caused the principal losses of human life—the most favorable opportunities were presented for an accurate scientific study of the phenomena of an active eruption. The main difference between these two types of eruptions lies in the characters of the respective lavas, those of the Hawaiian volcanoes being of a basic basaltic rock, which is extremely fusible, flowing with great freedom, and less readily choking its vents, while the explosive eruptions occur mainly with lavas of a more acid, and hence more viscous, nature; the hidden sources of energy and the forces which produce the eruption, however, being essentially the same in either case. The great drawback to such a study has been the distance of the Sandwich Islands from great scientific centres. Since his first visit to the Islands, however, Prof. Dana has kept up an active correspondence with intelligent residents, directing and advising the conduct of their observations, and the many scientific and semi-scientific visitors to these volcanoes in the last fifty years have, with a single exception, borne testimony to the correctness of his early observations and the aid which they have received from his advice. His book bears evidence of the zeal with which this work has been carried on, in the surprisingly complete record which it furnishes of the various eruptions, during this period, of the two great Hawaiian volcanoes, Kilauea and Mauna Loa (Mount Loa).

Searchers after first causes, and those who expect to find in every scientific work a complete and ready-made explanation of the phenomena of which it treats, will doubtless be disappointed in reading among his preliminary remarks the following frank statement of Prof. Dana: "The *origin of volcanic heat*, the *source of lava-columns* beneath the volcano, the *cause of the ascensive force* in the lava-column, are subjects on which science has various opinions and no positive knowledge." The position he thus takes is characteristic, and in marked contrast to that of another recent writer upon these volcanoes, who, though not having had a tithe of Dana's field experience, and having made only a single brief examination of the volcanoes, boldly attacks the most abstruse theoretical speculations which suggest themselves, and devotes an entire chapter to the discussion of the subjects which Dana dismisses with the above brief but pungent remark.

Although Dana devotes the principal part of his work to well-ascertained facts of observation, and, as above explicitly stated, does not enter into the discussion of theoretical questions which admit of no definite solution, he by no means avoids drawing general conclusions; but he frankly states their limits, and points out the direction in which future investigation may add to their confirmation or elaboration.

It is difficult to express in a few words the conclusions of so cautious and many-sided an observer as Dana, but it may be stated that he does not ascribe to the action of vapor of water so great a part in the production of volcanic energy as do Judd and others, although he regards it as a possible factor in increasing the action of the ascensive force in the lava column. This unknown ascensive force he regards not only as the means of supplying lava and heat, but also as an actual mechanical agent. Thus the ordinary work of such volcanoes as Kilauea and Loa is the gradual rise, in virtue of this ascensive force, of the lava in the interior conduit of the volcano, lifting up with it the floor of the crater, which in this case is partly covered with a thin lava crust, and in part is formed by lakes of molten, seething lava of varying size and form. At the time of the eruption, whether this eruption be an actual flow over the lip of the crater, or an escape of the lava through fissures opened in the flanks of the mountain (as has usually been the case in the later history of these volcanoes), the interior reservoir of molten lava is partly drained and the floor of the crater subsides, leaving portions of the hardened crust clinging to its sides. During the ordinary work of the volcano (in the time between the eruptions) the crater reservoir gradually fills again, and the floor of the crater rises. The elastic force of rising, expanding, and escaping vapors during this time produces jets and fountains of lava within the crater, and vesiculation, with consequent increase of bulk, of the lava.

With regard to the active eruption, he says: "In the preparation for a discharge the mountain has reached a critical state because of the elongation upwards of the fire-column; it is then only that the fracturing agency does its work; earthquakes are only a possible incident." But exactly what he considers this fracturing agency may have been does not clearly appear. Not the sudden access of water to the lava column, which he admits as the possible cause of ejective action, because fracturing is a necessary precedent of such access, and in some cases the lavas flow off quietly through the fissures thus produced, without any disturbing or ejective effect in the crater, showing that the access of water is not a necessary result of the fracturing.

To the question of fissure or massive eruptions, as such, Dana does not directly refer, although he shows that the volcanic vents on the several islands of the Sandwich group are evidently situated on two great and nearly parallel fissures, while the main lava flows of the present day emanate from minor fissures in the flanks of the existing volcanoes. It seems likely, and probably this is the view of Dana, that as the field of observation of those who are actively contesting this question widens, they will find, as in so many other vexed questions in geology, a part of the truth is involved in the view of either side and that both sides are partly right.

A considerable proportion of the illustrations are taken from Dana's original report on the Geology of the Wilkes Expedition, which, as he says, has been practically inaccessible to the reading public, since only one hundred copies of it were published by Government—an extremely niggardly number, as compared with those issued nowadays. His son, Prof. E. S. Dana, contributes a very valuable chapter on the petrography of the Hawaiian Islands, which is, however, of rather technical interest.

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Dana's 'Corals and Coral Islands' has long been familiar to all who are interested in this subject. As is well known, his explorations in the Pacific Ocean followed in part the track of Darwin's voyage of a few years before. On his arrival in Sydney, Australia, he first saw in the papers a brief statement of Darwin's theory of the origin of atolls and barrier reefs, and, as he says in his preface, with the generous enthusiasm of the true scientist: "The paragraph threw a flood of light over the subject, and called forth feelings of peculiar satisfaction, and of gratefulness to Mr. Darwin, which still come up afresh whenever the subject of coral islands is mentioned." Dana's own observations not only confirmed Darwin's theory, but led him to consider it as more positively established than did its author, and his conclusions on other points, though arrived at independently, were for the most part the same as those of Darwin. In the present edition of Dana's book, which appropriately follows close upon the heels of the last edition of Darwin's 'Coral Reefs,' recently noticed in these columns, considerable new material in text, maps, and illustrations has been added to the last edition to bring it up to date. No little space, naturally, is devoted to a discussion of the objections which have recently been advanced against the theory of subsidence as a necessary corollary of coral-reef growth. Our author's conclusions may best be expressed in his own words:

"With the theory of abrasion and solution to make lagoon-basins and the deep channels inside of barriers incompetent, and also that of current-drift, all the hypotheses of objectors to Darwin's theory are alike weak; for they have made these processes their reliance, whether appealing to a calcareous, or volcanic, or pelagic-growth, or mountain-peak basement of the structure. The subsidence which the Darwinian theory requires has not been opposed by the mention of any fact at variance with it, nor by setting aside the argument in its favor; and it has found new support in the facts from the *Challenger's* soundings off Tahiti that had been put in array against it, and strong corroboration in the evidence of subsidence from the West Indies."

"Darwin's theory, therefore, still remains as the theory that accounts for the origin of atolls and barrier islands, which is not true of any other that has been proposed. Fringing reefs and isolated coral-reef banks may form in shallow water within the growing-depth of reef-making corals, and on any kind of bottom. But atolls, barrier-reefs, and coral formations of great thickness require, as a rule, the aid of slow subsidence, as has been true of nearly all the thick rock formations over the continents."

The only direct reference to the theory of the permanence of continental and oceanic areas which Dana has done so much to establish and build up, and which has found so much additional confirmation in the later investigations of deep-sea conditions, and of the distribution of fauna and flora, especially on islands, occurs in the first of the above-mentioned volumes, where a chapter is devoted to "Volcanoes and Deep-Sea Topography." Dana does not agree with Darwin in considering that the regions of volcanic islands in the Pacific are areas of elevation, and in this chapter he shows that facts do not uphold the theory that volcanic action has been predominant in determining the position of deep-sea troughs, although, by undermining the crust, it may have caused some local depressions within a score of miles of the scene of activity. Erosion, and the loading of the crust by accumulation of sediment, he shows to be even less available as causes for producing the great oceanic depressions. The reader is, however, left to draw his own inference, that the relative distribution of the greater depressions and elevations of the earth's surface, as represented by its continents and great oceanic areas, was determined very early in its history, probably during the early movements of the first consolidated crust, and that while there have been relative elevations and depressions, in its subsequent history, of different portions of its respective areas, the broader features of the two have held a permanent relative relation.

The chief arguments brought forward at the present day in favor of the permanence of the ocean basins are: First, the higher specific gravity of the earth's crust beneath those basins, as inferred from pendulum observations, and the further inference that the greater density has obtained since the original consolidation of the earth. Second, the fact that almost all islands in the ocean tracts are formed of volcanic material, and not of the sedimentary rocks resulting from the abrasion of neighboring land-masses, which constitute the bulk of our continents. Third, the absence of rocks of deep-sea origin in continental areas. Finally, the distribution of plant and animal life, both recent and fossil, agrees in the main with the present distribution of land areas.

Leaves of a Life. Being the Reminiscences of Montagu Williams, Q.C. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1890.

THE administration of justice under the common law has always excited the amazement of the laity. The arguments by which men are ordinarily convinced of the truth of propositions are to a great extent withdrawn from the consideration of juries, and the evidence that the law allows to be presented to them must be presented in accordance with rules that are, to say the least, highly complicated and technical. However wise these provisions of the law may be, their application practically causes the trial of an offender to become a game of skill—not that it is not also frequently a game of chance—in which the attainment of justice is only remotely considered. If the evidence is at all doubtful, and the prisoner's counsel is the more skilful, the odds in his favor are very heavy, unless the judge, either from a professional desire to see the game played "for all it is worth," or, occasionally, from a disposition to protect the interests of the public, chooses to take a hand, when the prestige of his position is apt to control the verdict.

No better illustration of the results of the judge's interposition—which is undeniably an impairment of the rigor of the game—can be cited than Mr. Williams's story of the trial of a pawnbroker for receiving stolen goods. His counsel, having secured a disagreement, gave himself little concern about the retrial, in spite of Mr. Williams's friendly warning, and relied mainly upon an alibi. The judge summed up, however, in the following deadly manner. After repudiating, in traditional forensic style, the suggestion that there was a prejudice against the prisoner on account of his being a Jew, he proceeded:

"It is said he could not have received watches 'A,' because the day on which they were said to have been purchased at his shop was his Sabbath day. It was a Saturday, which, as you know, is the Sabbath of that most ancient people; and it is said that this good man could not have received the watches upon that day because, at the time when they were alleged to have been purchased, he was at his synagogue praying. It is also urged in his defence that the day on which the watches 'B' were disposed of at his shop was a day of fasting and humiliation among the Jews; that he was very strict in his religious observances; and that it is the custom for Jews to pass that day in their synagogue in prayer. Witnesses have been called to prove this, those witnesses being his daughter and his son. Well, gentlemen, far be it from me to insinuate that it is so, but it is an observation that I must make that there is the natural inclination of the child to protect its parent. I don't for one moment say that they came here to state that which is untrue—that is a matter entirely for you. Then his foreman gave evidence. Well, gentlemen, there again, you know—he is a servant in the house, and is dependent upon his master for his daily bread—but that, again, is a matter entirely for you. One thing has struck me in the progress of this case, and I'm sure it must also have struck you. It is a piece of evidence that did not come to light on the previous trial, of which, by the by, you never ought to have heard. Certain documents were found in the prisoner's possession relating to dealings, of the nature of usury, which he has had with people of his native town. Now, while the learned counsel was addressing you, I was adding up the amount of interest which this extremely religious man was in the habit of exacting from his clients, and I find it amounts to the somewhat exorbitant sum of from 180 to 200 per cent. Now it has occurred to me—I don't know whether the same idea has occurred to you—that this is just the sort of man who, either going to or returning from his synagogue, might call in at his shop just to see how matters were going on; but that also is entirely a question for you."

It is unnecessary to say that the jury did not have to leave their seats to find a verdict, and there is nothing in the story to occasion discontent with the result. But in another case, where the judge insisted upon a verdict in opposition to an alibi testified to by the members of the prisoner's family, it was subsequently proved beyond question that the verdict was erroneous. The unfortunate victim was eventually pardoned, but, as his family had no support but his labor, they had in the meantime been sent to the almshouse, and his wife had died, while the man himself had become insane. Instances of this character justify the maxim that it is better that ten guilty men should escape rather than that one innocent man should be condemned.

On the other hand, Mr. Williams's feelings were not to be envied when he succeeded in procuring the acquittal of a man charged with committing a peculiarly atrocious murder, only to have him get drunk and go about the town boasting that he had done the deed. Many lawyers refuse to defend, in murder cases, where they are personally satisfied of the guilt of the accused; but it does not appear that Mr. Williams adopted this principle, or that it prevails at the English bar. Casuists may dispute about this, but it is clear that when one has undertaken the office of counsel, it is his duty to take every advantage that the rules of the game allow to his client. Any other rule would give rise to intolerable abuses; but it cannot be denied that the desire for success frequently leads counsel to take advantages that are not covered by the principle.

Under the English system of division of labor in the legal profession, the inducements to undertake criminal cases in court are much greater than in this country. The barrister is not required to come into personal communication with the accused, and he can try his case as a purely technical affair. The practice of going on circuit also unquestionably promotes an *esprit de corps* that is lacking here, and conduces, moreover, to the formation of intimate professional acquaintanceships. Of his intimacy with Douglas Straight, Mr. Williams says:

"On one occasion we had been fighting a case against one another before an Alderman at Guildhall, and, on leaving the building, we linked our arms and proceeded together in the direction of 'The Garrick,' where we proposed to have lunch. I shall never forget the remark that fell from one of the by-standers as we passed up the street: 'Lor', Bill,' we heard him say, 'ain't we bin sold! Why, we thought

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they was quarrellin' together inside, like cat and dog. It's all a put-up-job, Bill. Just look at 'em now, arm-in-arm, and roarin' with laughter like two old pals.'"

Mr. Williams had a varied training. After leaving Eton, of which he has some good stories to tell, he became a master in the Ipswich Grammar School, and then obtained a commission in the army. Tiring of this, he tried the stage, and married an actress, but soon determined to take up the profession which he followed with distinguished success until he was obliged to choose between certain death and the bare possibility of life afforded by the operation for the extirpation of the larynx. The result was fortunate, and, as he was unable to resume his practice, his friends secured his appointment as Metropolitan Magistrate as well as Queen's Counsel. Considering the nature of his training, it is rather surprising that he should have lost his head in trying his first case, which was a prosecution for horse-stealing. Upon hearing the verdict of acquittal, he says: "In my agony, thinking that a great miscarriage of justice had taken place on account of my stupidity, I jumped up, and, heaven knows why, exclaimed: 'My lord, what's to become of the horse?' Looking at me somewhat severely, the Judge said: 'What is that to do with you, sir? Don't you think you've done enough?'"

Of course, Mr. Williams went home and told his wife that he should never go into court again; but it was not long before he overcame the difficulties of the start, and he states that he has defended more prisoners than any other living man. It may be added that he had the satisfaction of prosecuting successfully a money-lender who had fleeced him when he was in the army, and a professional dog-stealer who had once made him pay £20 for the recovery of a favorite animal. In the latter case he drew two indictments, one for stealing a dog, which is only a misdemeanor, the other for the felony of stealing the collar, and by this device succeeded in giving the prisoner thirty months at hard labor.

As we have intimated, it is necessary to administer a sedative to the moral sense before the lay reader feels himself in harmony with the spirit of these anecdotes; but, this preliminary attended to, nothing but enjoyment awaits him. There is not a dull page in the book. The specimens of Mr. Williams's addresses to juries in the appendix do not give one a very exalted idea of his ability, and as to the frontispiece, we are at a loss to know whether it is intended as a portrait of the author or of one of the interesting persons that owe their liberty to his services.

Sewerage and Land-Drainage. By George E. Waring, jr. D. Van Nostrand Co. 1889. 2d ed. 4to, pp. 400, 29 plates and 75 illustrations.

THE underworld of drains and sewers is almost as important in the life of town-dwellers as the more manifest factors that are upon and above the surface; and that they are out of sight should not make them out of mind to the ordinary citizen, any more than they can be to the sanitarian. Sanitarians, perhaps only sanitary engineers, are those specially interested in working out the various problems of drains and drainage, sewers and sewerage; but we are all concerned in their being successfully solved. To architects we must intrust the building of our dwellings, but the average householder should know something about sites, walls, and ventilation, although never able nor required to draw up a working plan. So with sewers. Prosaic as the theme is, it is of daily and increasing importance for old towns and for new, and every resident on city ground should understand the principles if not the details.

This volume, which might have been a dry and technical discussion, fit only for engineers, is a clear and interesting account of its title-subject. Col. Waring's facility of expression has presented a popular view without losing sight of the serious facts. In part it is an appeal to the laity, but not at the sacrifice of honesty. One motive is to proclaim that the separate system of sewerage of which he is the conspicuous advocate, and which he does not hesitate to call Waring's system, is the best; but the treatment is not sensational or exaggerated, nor does it fail to credit other engineers with their work in these fields, and it discusses other than the small-pipe methods. The book is a distinct contribution to popular knowledge, and must be treated with respect by experts.

A considerable part of it is taken up with these engineering problems in various parts of the country, and herein lies its practical value to city boards and to individuals. Side by side with the theoretical explanation of what should be, is the narration of what has been accomplished and how it was done. Among these reports are descriptions of the great work that saved Memphis from abandonment, and of the costly trunk sewer that has relieved Buffalo. One of the most interesting solutions is that of the problem presented by San Luis Obispo. Across the water a system of sewerage in Havre has been arranged on this plan, and in Paris an experimental section was built. In addition to the question of sewers are the discussion of sewage-disposal, a practical chapter on house drainage, a fascinating one upon drainage in Holland, a most useful one upon land-drainage, and one upon malaria. Nor do these exhaust the contents. In relation to malaria we may not quite agree with all that is said, but the conclusion is unimpeachable that drainage is desirable. The references to bacteria, and especially the eulogy of *bacterium termo* and the bacteria of nitrification are abreast of late sanitary knowledge, whose circulation in this manner is very acceptable.

Many engineering problems and very much that belongs to sanitary science are yet debatable, and the author expresses himself on doubtful points, and may be said in some cases to create doubts, with the same freedom and force that have led to his advocacy of the small-pipe sewers. For example, he would generally lay drain-pipe from above downward, he would have no running trap in house-drains, he does not approve of trap-venting, and so forth. While not endorsing as unimpeachable every proposition advanced, we do frankly advise that this may be taken as general authority over the wide range it covers, and as such be admitted to an honorable place in every public library, and as a reference book for sanitary engineers, for officers of health, and for intelligent citizens.

History of the Girtys, etc., with a recital of the principal events in the West during these wars (1774–1795), drawn from authentic sources, etc. By C. W. Butterfield. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. 1890. 8vo, pp. 425.

THE centennial of the first settlement of Ohio called forth a number of books; the 'Old Northwest' was the first, and the volume before us is one of the many narratives of the pioneer days in the West which have followed it in less than twelve months. To most Eastern readers Simon Girty's name is hardly more than a well-remembered sound; even the Kentucky or Ohio boy, in his more copious draughts from the literature of tomahawk and scalping-knife, is not apt to learn much of Thomas, James, and George Girty, or their half brother, John Turner, who, along with the more notorious Simon, adorn our author's title-page, and have their deeds and their troubles faithfully chronicled in the following pages.

Simon Girty, the renegade, was an illiterate and a frequently drunken fellow, who, as a boy, was captured by the Indians, and thus learned their customs and the use of the Seneca language. After serving for a short time under the United States flag, at one time as an interpreter, at another as a lieutenant of militia, he deserted his friends and his country to sell himself to Gov. Hamilton, the British commander at Detroit, who nominally employed him as Indian interpreter, but really as an agent to stir up savage warfare against the Americans. Girty was thus the cause of great suffering, and naturally the object of the most intense hatred, throughout the Western settlements, in Pennsylvania, and in Virginia, which then comprised Kentucky. The commander at Detroit, very probably under instructions from his home Government, kept up the war in the Northwest, through his red-skinned allies, until the British garrisons were removed in 1795 under Jay's treaty; consequently Girty plied his infamous trade for twelve years after the conclusion of peace between Great Britain and the United States. He died, blind and decrepit, in February, 1818, near Malden, Canada, at the age of seventy-seven. Long before his death his wife (a white woman) left him on account of his brutal treatment and beastly drunkenness.

The one romantic incident in Girty's career is his saving the life of Simon Kenton, the noted Kentucky pioneer and Indian-fighter, when he found him a prisoner among the Shawanese. Everything else that is told of him, either by our author or by other historians whom he contradicts or criticises, is mean, dull, and sad. But highly realistic are the blood-curdling accounts of those unspeakable tortures with which prisoners among Girty's savage companions were put to death in his presence and with his full concurrence. The greater part of the volume before us is made up of extracts from previous writers and the comments of the author showing their want of accuracy. He first takes up a short sensational account of his hero, which appeared in 1814 in the *Missouri Gazette*, from which it was copied into various magazines and local histories. This account bestows upon poor Girty a heroic death at the battle of the Thames, which was fought in 1812, though in fact he was then alive, and survived his obituary for four years. Mr. Butterfield picks flaws no less glaring in a number of other "lives" and historic sketches, coming down to Theodore Roosevelt's 'Winning of the West,' which he quotes no less than thirty-four times, almost in every instance by way of contradiction.

The main object of our biographer in these controversies is to expose and correct the mistaken notion that Girty had in mind, habit, and tastes become an Indian, and that, in their fights against the whites of the borderland, he sided with them from a deep-felt sympathy with them. According to Mr. Butterfield, he simply turned "Tory," being seduced from his former loyalty to his native State and country by Capt. McKee, a much abler man than he; and his instigation of Indian raids and Indian cruelties against his white countrymen was simply the outcome of his Toryism. Simon

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Girty has been called an "anomaly in Western history," and perhaps he was an anomaly in human nature; but it will be hard for the ordinary reader to interest himself in researches into the motives of such a low specimen of human nature as Simon Girty, the renegade. Yet the book, with all its notes, footnotes, copies of ancient documents, etc., is entertaining, and calculated to convey a lively conception of the baptism of blood and fire through which the Northwestern pioneers passed in Indian days.

Among the Selkirk Glaciers, being the account of a rough survey in the Rocky Mountain region of British Columbia. By W. S. Green. Macmillan & Co. 1890. 8vo, xvi, 251 pp. Illustrated.

In this book the Rev. W. S. Green gives an account of six weeks' mountaineering in the Selkirk Range, with a companion, the Rev. Henry Swanzy, during the summer of 1888. The object of these gentlemen was not merely to enjoy an outing in a little-known Alpine region, for which they were well fitted by previous experience, but to add their mite to geographical knowledge by mapping the area explored. The book is an agreeable, straightforward narrative, and offers an excellent epitome of the way in which even a brief holiday may be made profitable as well as pleasant to those who enjoy outdoor life, mountain scenery, and brisk exercise.

The Selkirk region abounds with fine glaciers which, though they lack the marine element that gives such charm to the coast glaciers of Alaska, are much nearer to the comforts and conveniences of civilization. There is perhaps no congeries of large glaciers in North America as accessible as that of the Selkirks, and no other, certainly, which possesses the advantage of being but a few hours from an excellent hotel. The account of our travellers' walks and climbs is happily destitute of any catastrophe, though having the usual proportion of minor misadventures. On the whole, however, the work of the summer was remarkably successful. Mr. Green's narrative is fresh and breezy, without gush or egotism, and may well stimulate others to follow his example.

A word of caution is appropriate here for those who may have had no Alpine experience. Were it not for their previous forays on the New Zealand and other Alps, the success that, in this book, seems to follow their efforts so naturally, would probably have been wanting, or marred by some serious accident. Mountaineering has its science as well as its (often tiresome) slang, and beginners, especially in glacier work, should beware of rashness.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Born Coquette. F. F. Lovell & Co. 50 cents.
Allen, R. Miss Eaton's Romance. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.
American Digest (Annual, 1889). St. Paul, Minn.: West Publishing Co. $8.
April's Lady: A Tale. John W. Lovell Co. 50 cents.
Arbuthnot, F. F. Arabic Authors: A Manual of Arabian History and Literature. London: William Heinemann.
Boldrewood, R. The Miner's Right; A Tale of the Australian Goldfields. Macmillan & Co. $1.25.
Brooks, Mrs. Sarah W. English Poetry and Poets. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. $2.
Calm, Marie. Bella's Blue-Book. Worthington Co.
Dallas, Mary K. The Devil's Anvil. Belford Co. 50 cents.
Dickson, R., and Edmond, P. E. Annals of Scottish Printing. Macmillan & Co. $13.
Dillon, J. F. Commentaries on the Law of Municipal Corporations. 4th ed. 2 vols. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $12.
Dorsey, Anna V. Betty. F. F. Lovell & Co. 50 cents.
Ford, W. C. The Writings of George Washington. Vol. VI. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $5.
Fox, H. F., and Bromley, Rev. T. M. Models and Exercises in Unseen Translation. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. $1.40.
Gerhard, W. P. The Disposal of Household Wastes. D. Van Nostrand Co. 50 cents.
Gautier, T. Juancho, the Bull-Fighter. Cassell Publishing Co.
Gresswell, Rev. W. P. History of the Dominion of Canada. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. $2.
Imbert de Saint-Amand. The Happy Days of the Empress Marie-Louise. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.25.
Jevons, Prof. W. S. Pure Logic, and Other Minor Works. Macmillan & Co. $2.50.
Lytton, Earl. The King of Amasis. Macmillan & Co. $1.25.
Maartens, M. Joost Avelingh. D. Appleton & Co. 50 cents.
Mario, Jessie White. Scritti e Discorsi di Agostino Bertani. Florence: G. Barbèra.
Marryatt, Florence. Blindfold. John W. Lovell Co. 50 cents.
McCarthy, L. P. The Annual Statistician and Economist, 1890. New York: F. E. Grant, 7 W. 42d St. $4.
Montefiore, A. Henry M. Stanley, the African Explorer. New York: Fleming H. Revell. 75 cents.
More, Sir T. *Giovanni Pico della Mirandola*. London: David Nutt.
Morgan, A. The Society and the "Fad." New York: N. D. C. Hodges.
Morris, Lewis. Works. Longmans, Green & Co.
Patten, Prof. S. N. The Economic Basis of Protection. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.
Pavements and Roads, their Construction and Maintenance. New York: *The Engineering and Building Record*.
Rudall, H. A. Beethoven. Scribner & Welford. $1.
Samuels, E. A. With Fly-Rod and Camera. New York: *Forest and Stream* Publishing Co. $5.
Saunders, T. B. The Wisdom of Life (from Schopenhauer's 'Aphorismen zur Lebensweisheit'). Scribner & Welford. $1.
Seymour, M. F. Trovata. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.
Shilleto, Rev. A. R. The Works of Flavius Josephus. Vols. IV., V. Scribner & Welford.
Shortland, Vice-Admiral. Nautical Surveying. Macmillan & Co. $5.25.
Slack-Davis. London, and Other Poems. Pittsburgh: J. R. Weldin & Co.
Smith, L. L. The Transfer of Negotiable Paper as Collateral Security. Philadelphia: T. & J. W. Johnson & Co.
Sommer, H. O. Le Morte Darthur. Vol. II. London: David Nutt.
Stephen, Sir J. F. A General View of the Criminal Law of England. 2d ed. Macmillan & Co. $3.50.
Stevens, T. Scouting for Stanley in East Africa. Cassell Publishing Co. $2.
Stuart, E. Kestell of Greystone. F. F. Lovell & Co. 50 cents.

SUMMER READING.

Mr. Harold Frederic has given us in 'The Lawton Girl' a graphic and remarkably realistic picture of a prosperous manufacturing town in Central New York. The story is of an unfortunate girl, Jessica Lawton, who returns to the scene of her disgrace with the determination to live it down. It is an unusually strong and interesting narrative, dealing with real people and events in a simple, natural way. The characters are clearly and distinctly drawn, and the development of the story is very skilfully managed. It is one of the most noteworthy novels of the season, and will largely advance the reputation of the author, whose earlier work, 'Seth's Brother's Wife,' met with such general favor. (Charles Scribner's Sons. 12mo, cloth, $1.25; paper, 50 cents.)

'Expiation,' by Octave Thanet, is a story of Arkansas life at the close of the war when the country was infested with "gray-backs." The book is full of dramatic situations, fine characterization, weird pictures, and touches of pathos and humor; while the pictures of Southern life are carefully and faithfully drawn. Intensely exciting and absorbing, it retains the reader's interest throughout, while it is valuable as picturing a part of the country to which many in the North are strangers. The illustrations, by A. B. Frost, are spirited and excellent. (Charles Scribner's Sons. 12mo. Illustrated, cloth, $1.00; paper, 50 cents.)

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